DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 044 332 SO 000 307

TITLE	Social Studies in New England Secondary Schools.
INSTITUTION	New England Educational Assessment Project.
SPONS AGENCY	Office of Education (DHEW), Washington, D.C.
PUB DATE	Jun 69
NOTE	60p.
EDRS PRICE	EDRS Price MF-$0.50 HC-$3.10
DESCRIPTORS	*Academic Achievement, *Cultural Background, Educational Philosophy, *Interaction Process Analysis, Longitudinal Studies, Secondary School Students, *Secondary School Teachers, Social Studies, Teacher Influence, *Teaching Procedures, Values
IDENTIFIERS	ESEA Title V, *New England Educational Assessment Project

ABSTRACT

The Social Studies Committee of the New England Educational Assessment Project conducted this assessment over a period of two years. The general objectives of this study were: 1) to identify the teaching intentions and cultural orientations of 3,631 secondary social studies teachers and the value orientations of their pupils; 2) to obtain teachers perceptions of the factors in the learning environment thought most likely to affect student outcome; 3) to identify the classroom interaction patterns of selected teachers and determine whether particular patterns of interactions are characteristic of particular teacher intentions or cultural orientations; 4) to measure actual student achievement within the categories or teaching intention identified by inventories developed or selected for the study; and, 5) to attempt to discover what relationships exist between teaching intentions, classroom interaction patterns, and student achievement. The most significant findings were: the dominant educational intentions and cultural orientations of large numbers of teachers may be identified and analyzed; and, that these categories proved to be more strongly related to classroom practices and student achievement than any other factor. These findings have important implications for curriculum development, teacher education, and in-service programs. (SBE)

ED0 44332

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION
& WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION
THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY

SOCIAL STUDIES IN NEW ENGLAND

SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Prepared by

THE NEW ENGLAND EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT PROJECT

A cooperative regional project of the six New England States funded under Title V, Section 505, of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965

Providence, Rhode Island

June 1969

S0 000 307

NEW ENGLAND COMMISSIONERS OF EDUCATION

William J. Sanders, Connecticut
William T. Logan, Jr., Maine
Neil V. Sullivan, Massachusetts
Newell J. Paire, New Hampshire
William P. Robinson, Jr., Rhode Island
Harvey B. Scribner, Vermont

THE NEW ENGLAND EDUCATIONAL ASSESSMENT PROJECT

State Representatives

James M. Burke, Connecticut
Ray A. Cook, Maine
James F. Baker, Massachusetts
Frank W. Brown, New Hampshire
Edward F. Wilcox, Rhode Island
Richard S. Staudt, Vermont

State Directors

John R. Pescosolido, Connecticut
C. Michael P. O'Donnell, Maine
Jesse O. Richardson, Massachusetts
Donald R. Randall, New Hampshire
John A. Snell, Rhode Island
Thomas W. Dodge, Vermont

New England Social Studies Committee

Arthur E. Soderlind, Connecticut
Joseph Pecoraro, Maine
Edward DiCenso, Maine
Arnold F. Lannie, Massachusetts
James G. Hinkle, Jr., Massachusetts
Carter B. Hart, New Hampshire
William F. Carroll, Jr., Rhode Island
Ralph H. Lataille, Rhode Island
H. Donn McCafferty, Vermont
Thomas W. Dodge, Chairman

Project Administration

Philip A. Annas, Project Director
Paul E. Blackwood, Liaison Officer
U.S. Office of Education

Principal Consultants

Theodore Brameld
Boston University
Richard S. Staudt
Vermont Department of Education
Marvin G. Cline
Boston University
David L. Sylwester
University of Vermont
Elbert B. Whorton
University of Vermont
Frank L. Steeves
University of Vermont

ED0 44332

PREFACE

Social studies in New England's secondary schools consist of courses designed to provide the students with knowledge and skills essential for participation in American democratic society. "The social studies classroom is a laboratory of patriotic living in which students and teachers practice principles and ideals of American democracy."*

The New England Social Studies Committee has conducted an assessment over a period of two years to determine the affect on student achievement and attitudes of the values held by teachers, and the objectives that determine classroom procedures.

The Committee's report should help social studies teachers evaluate their program, and provide state department personnel and school administrators with a better understanding of the current social studies curriculum.

The report points to further investigation of the elements in a social studies program at the secondary level that will provide students with the training necessary for well balanced citizens of a democracy in the 1970's.

Philip A. Annas
Project Director

*Evaluative Criteria, 1960 Edition, National Study of Secondary School Evaluation.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Seventeen consultants representing seven universities have contributed to the development of this study, although it is primarily the result of the efforts of seven major consultants. Robert Stake contributed many of the concepts of the basic design. The idea of a value orientation inventory to discriminate teaching intentions may be credited to Theodore Brameld. He subsequently headed a research group which developed the *Social Studies Inventory.* He was assisted by Nobua Shimahara of Rhode Island College, David Conrad and Thomas Hurwitz of Boston University.

An *Antecedent Questionnaire* was developed by Robert Stake and Terry Denny of the Center for Instructional Research and Curriculum Evaluation, University of Illinois. Terry Denny later worked with Elizabeth Hunter and David Starkes to develop a protocal for classroom interaction analysis. Subsequent to its development Richard Staudt of the Vermont Department of Education provided both training of classroom observers and analysis of results.

The development of a measure of student outcomes was contributed by Marvin Cline of Boston University. Assisting the project in earlier exploratory research were William Kvaraceus of Tufts University, and Helen Kenney of Northeastern University.

Actual data gathering was done by both the ad hoc Social Studies Committee of the New England Educational Assessment Project and its state directors. The Social Studies Committee was assisted in its work by over three thousand New England teachers and school administrators who voluntarily contributed information to the project. The work of these teachers varied from filling out questionnaires to making visits to classrooms of other teachers. Without their support and cooperation the project would never have been possible.

Final analysis and interpretation of project findings resulted from the work of a research team at the University of Vermont. Statistical analysis was done by David Sylwester and Elbert Whorton of the University Mathematics Department. Interpretations of findings and reporting is largely the work of Frank Steeves of the University School of Education.

Thomas W. Dodge
Chairman, New England Social Studies Committee

SO 000 307

CONTENTS

PREFACE i
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS ii
Chapter

I. THE NATURE AND SUBSTANCE OF THE ASSESSMENT 1
Introduction 1
Rationale and Goals 1
Phase I: Teacher Orientation and the Social Studies Inventory 2
Theoretical Models of Intention 3
Theoretical Models of Cultural Orientations 4
Social Studies Inventory 5
Phase II: Antecedents of Social Studies Programs 6
Phase III: Transactions and Classroom Interaction Patterns 7
Phase IV: Selected Student Outcomes 7
Summary 8

II. PHASE I: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY 9
Inventory Administration 9
Characteristics of the Total Group 9
Summary 17

III. IN-DEPTH STUDY: THE ANTECEDENT TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE 19
Results of the Antecedent Questionnaire 20
Relationships of Intentions to Outcomes 21
Summary 23

IV. INTERACTION ANALYSIS: PHASE III OF THE ASSESSMENT 24
Interaction Analysis: A Brief Review 24
Findings 27
Summary 32

V. ANALYSIS OF STUDENT OUTCOMES 33
Introduction 33
The Student Social Studies Inventory 33
Initial Results of Analysis 36
Additional Analysis 39
Summary 39

VI. AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PROJECT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS . . 40
Appendix 43

CHAPTER ONE

THE NATURE AND SUBSTANCE OF THE ASSESSMENT

Introduction

At the outset of this report it seems desirable to set forth a description of the assessment as a whole; its objectives, its problems, and its procedures. Unless the general design of the study is understood, specific consideration of any of its many facets is confusing.

The report represents the work of the New England Social Studies Committee over a two-year period. During this time seventeen professional consultants who represented seven universities contributed to the project. The design itself was the work of two major consultants. Four data collection instruments were employed, and each of these either was the product of a consultant, working with a research staff, or was devised by the Committee after considerable study. Where necessary, each instrument was tested and validated to the satisfaction of its author.

Obviously, a study of these dimensions that involved many people and that extended over so long a period demanded modification and redefinition occasionally. Translating ideals into practice is never easy. Among the factors that modified the directions of the assessment were the realities set by school schedules, the availability of funds, the amount of time that could be given to the work of any individual, and the political and social attitudes of teachers. Although the Committee proceeded on the basis of stated goals and specific plans, the assessment was in no sense a pre-designed package in which the ultimate goals were already well understood. Rather, the thrust of the study was directed toward an ambitious attempt to determine why successful programs have achieved their goals.

Rationale and Goals

Not a status study. – An early decision of the Committee related to the scope of the assessment. Early in 1967, while procedures were still to be determined, the Committee agreed that the word "assessment" implies more than data gathering and reporting descriptive information. It was not that the Committee considered status studies, as such, to be unimportant or of little value. More positively, it was believed strongly that the status of social studies had been amply investigated and reported many times in the past. Hence, it was decided that the assessment would center on the teaching intentions and values of social studies teachers and the relationships, if any, of these intentions and values to the outcomes of teaching. Such a study might provide clues to factors contributing to "success" in social studies teaching.

This is not to imply that quantitative information was lacking in the assessment. In fact, during the spring of 1967, the Committee analyzed the characteristics of 10,140 social studies teachers and the prevailing program content throughout the six-state region. Utilizing the programming services of Measurement Research Center in Iowa and the computer capabilities of the Massachusetts State Department of Education, a number of descriptive reports were issued. In August, 1967, and again in February, 1968, regional research bulletins were distributed. Similar reports were compiled for each state.

The February, 1968 report consists of eighteen tables with supporting documentation. It includes the following kinds of factual information which may be of considerable value to those who need to know such facts for these years or who may be interested in comparing characteristics of the social-studies teaching population with the general population of teachers. The average social studies teacher was thirty-seven years old. Twenty-five per cent were twenty-seven years old or younger. Twenty-five per cent were forty-five or older. Among the younger teachers, those under twenty-nine, men outnumbered women by more than two to one. However, among the older teachers, fifty and above, women greatly outnumbered men. More than twice as many social studies teachers were found to be single. Nearly half of the teachers held the Bachelor's degree, and nearly a third of all the teachers the Master's degree. A surprising ten per cent had completed thirty semester hours or more beyond the Master's degree, and approximately thirty teachers held the earned Doctorate. At the other end of the scale, some three hundred social studies teachers were found who were teaching with something less than a college degree. About forty per cent had completed a college level course within the previous five years. The data suggested that many social studies teachers move frequently. Although the statistical average indicated that the teachers had about nine years experience, with seven of these years in their present system, it was also noted that a full fifty per cent had less than four years with their current system. About twenty per cent were working for the first year in the system. Similar figures were compiled for such matters as salaries, extra class assignments, pupil-teacher ratios, number of years in non-public schools, type of institution from which degrees were earned, and total course load.

Not an evaluation. – By early agreement of the Committee, an assessment should not be concerned with value judgments relating to specific social studies teachers or programs. That is, the Committee decided that it should not be concerned with how good or how bad particular teachers or programs might be judged. Rather, the assessment should concern itself with questions relating to the actual teaching intentions and values held by social studies teachers, the conditions of teaching that affect such intentions and values, the relationships, if any, of teachers' intentions and certain student outcomes.

Objectives. – In general terms the goals of the study were stated by the Committee as follows:

1. *Identify the teaching intentions and cultural orientations of social studies teachers and the value orientations of their pupils,*
2. *Obtain teachers' perceptions of the factors in the learning environment thought most likely to affect student outcome,*
3. *Identify the classroom interaction patterns of selected teachers and determine whether particular patterns of interaction are characteristic of particular teacher intentions or cultural orientations.*
4. *Measure actual student achievement within the categories or teaching intention identified by instruments developed or selected for the study,*
5. *Attempt to discover what relationships exist between teaching intentions, classroom interaction patterns, and student achievement.*

Two corollary objectives were stated as benefits to local school administrators. First, administrators would be able to use the project results to assess the combination of curriculum inputs that would most likely achieve local social studies objectives. Teachers would then be provided with a basis for local curriculum change. Second, administrators might be able to use the scores from project instruments to assess the effectiveness of their own evaluation procedures, especially to the degree that local teachers were able to see how well their own intentions were actually attained.

General design. – By July, 1967, contracts were awarded to develop instruments designed to measure four kinds of information. Development of these instruments eventually involved five consultants and their research associates in four colleges, a research consortium, and, of course, the effort and contributions of the Committee itself, either to modify the products of consultants or to develop substitute instruments. The four primary measures and those responsible for the design or selection of each were as follows:

1. *An instrument to identify the value orientations of social studies teachers as a means through which to identify the educational intents of social studies teachers, Dr. Theodore Brameld, Boston University;*
2. *An instrument to indicate a teacher's perceptions of the learning environment for the social studies program, termed the selected antecedents of social studies programs, Dr. Robert Stake, University of Illinois;*
3. *An instrument or a means of describing the social dynamics or classroom interaction patterns in social studies classes, Dr. Terry Denny, Educational Products Information Exchange, and Dr. Richard Staudt, Vermont State Department of Education;*
4. *An instrument or instruments to measure student outcomes as a result of social studies programs; specifically, to measure students' cognitive perceptions or knowledge of social situations in terms of specific value orientations, and to measure students' dispositions to act in social situations as evidence of these values, Dr. Marvin Cline, Boston University.*

It was hoped that the instrument intended to identify value orientations or educational intents, hereafter referred to as the SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY, would be completed by approximately twelve thousand teachers throughout New England as selected from the NEEAP Regional Data Bank. This part of the assessment was considered to be an all-New England survey and constituted Phase I of the study. The SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY, described in greater detail under the following heading, was developed by Professor Brameld and his associates, during the fall of 1967, field tested and refined during the spring and summer of 1968, and administered as part of the assessment in late fall, 1968.

The remaining three instruments were intended to be used with thirty-six selected teachers and their students from throughout New England whose teaching intentions and cultural orientations were identified by the SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY. These aspects of the assessment were termed, collectively, the In-Depth Study. The In-Depth Study, therefore, consisted of the three Phases, utilizing instruments 2, 3 and 4 from the general design; Phase II, use of the Antecedent Teacher Questionnaire; Phase III, determination of classroom transactions and interaction analysis patterns; and Phase IV, measures of student outcomes. Activation of Phases II, III, and IV of necessity, followed that of Phase I. However, since time allowances were limited, development of the latter instruments paralleled that of the SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY and their administration both overlapped and followed the administration of Phase I. Processing of data, statistical analysis, and writing was scheduled during the spring, 1969. Each of these instruments or measures, their development, and their use is described in the remainder of this chapter.

Phase I. TEACHER ORIENTATION AND THE SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY

Rationale

Value Orientation and concern. – In the identification of goals or teacher intents it was felt that the controlling factor consists of certain values held by the teacher or administrator. The following insights guided the development of conceptual models and instruments to identify teaching intentions. Values are referred to in everyday terms as concerns. What people are concerned about is important because it determines the object of their attention, and hence, the subject of their thoughts and focus of conscious actions. In the view of modern depth psychology it is concern which precedes any conscious act. When feeling or emotion is attached to either objects in one's environment or to characteristic forms of cultural behavior, the result is a *value orientation.* Feeling and emotion have been shown by Freud and his successors to be the root forces operating in personality and the most useful key to explaining behavior. They are at a primary level determinant of all conscious acts. Thus by beginning with basic motives or values of the teachers studied it was hoped a more authentic basis for identification of teaching intentions could be found than is typically available in the formal statements of intention.

If the teacher is concerned about a certain kind of development in a pupil, he takes some action which he hopes will advance this development. His action should be appropriate to his intended goals. But how he acts is determined by the values to which he is committed. Thus to both predict the actions of teachers and evaluate their effect on outcomes of students it seemed most fruitful to begin with the basis of action. A consistency of concerns exhibited by a teacher in the SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY was assumed in this study as evidence of a stable, consistent value orientation.

Fundamentally and in broad terms, the educational intentions of social studies teachers might be expected to point in any of three possible directions: (a) toward the subject being taught, of and for its own sake; that is, an intention that might be termed disciplinary in nature or Integrity of Discipline; (b) toward practical skills or the application of knowledge required to cope with people, a Utilitarian or Social Utility approach, and (c) toward universal or ideal principles of social life, or what might be considered a humanistic intention. These three categories of intent may be expected to result rather naturally from differences in academic or professional preparation or from prior experience.

Instruments and techniques accepted by the Committee for identification of these value orientations are consistent with, and derived in part from, work done by Florence Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodtbeck and may be found in their book, *Variations in Value Orientations.*[1]

The categorization of patterns of behavior and its interpretation as an exhibition of a value orientation, is a basic technique frequently used in anthropological analysis. Instruments such as the SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY have been used on a number of occasions to relate culture to education and to discriminate educational intentions successfully.

THEORETICAL MODELS OF INTENTION

Integrity of Discipline in this study implies the belief that in the program of study there are certain essential facts or concepts which are to be acquired. To some degree there is an assumption that the teacher's task is a formal one; formal in the sense that there is a formal structure appropriate to each academic discipline which it is the teacher's duty to impart to the learner.

In this way, geography as a discipline is viewed as a body of knowledge developed through the years, utilizing a particular method for accumulation of facts. The teacher faces the task of enabling the student to acquire these facts. At advanced levels he may also be concerned with the method of inquiry that leads to the accumulation of data within the discipline. The theoretical basis for this practice is the belief that man lives in a world of discreet things which can be known in terms of the empirically identifiable characteristics which represent them.

The Discipline Oriented Teacher is defined for the purposes of this study as one who views a particular discipline as being an essential part of the curriculum because that subject has developed a body of knowledge that is essential to producing the educated man. He stresses the basic concepts of the discipline with the methods of inquiry and modes of thought of scholars in those disciplines. Such a teacher would be inclined to have his students pursue the subject as an historian, sociologist or political scientist so that in effect the students come away with an external view of mankind and a respect for the discipline's contribution to our accumulated body of knowledge.

Social Utility as an intention is oriented toward the imparting of knowledge that the teacher believes will have a functional value to the students in their attempts to *adjust* to the demands of society. This approach tends to be pragmatic and present, rather than past oriented. The student is expected to develop a skill and an ability to operate successfully within the structure of any social group. There is an attempt to prepare students for their role as participating members of institutions within a society.

The aims of Social Utility are always process oriented. Equipped with this kind of knowledge, the student may learn how to play games, win friends, vote, read the newspaper, or make money depending upon his immediate needs or inclination. In theoretical terms Social Utility principles are Emanuel Kant's Hypothetical Imperatives. Such knowledge may help the student to gain his private end because it is eventually a skill or technique for doing something with or to people. It is, therefore, always a form of applied knowledge.

A Humanistic Intention as defined in this study has as its objective the understanding of human nature. The immediate subject of study may be individual human behavior, a social interaction pattern, or even an event from history. the teacher himself may be trained in any discipline. What distinguishes the humanistic orientation is that any individual observation, event, or institution becomes the object of study because it serves as a manifestation of some universal generalization about man.

The humanistic teacher does not stop in his teaching to emphasize a fact, or even the relationship of several facts in succession, except as fact exemplifies or illustrates a principle. These facts are united by an appropriate hypothesis related to the idea of a common humanity. The development of inquiry in a humanistic classroom always culminates in an observation or discovery illustrating a universal statement about man, his nature, or his behavior. Thus, for the humanistic teacher, the Battle of Waterloo may serve to show the pervasive fact of all history that aggression undisciplined by an ideal will dissipate its force in eventual social disorder and defeat for the aggressor. Such a teacher would stress the *reform* of society rather than *adjustment* to society.

At this point it might be well to emphasize that neither the Committee nor Professor Brameld believed that few social studies teachers could be classified as "pure" examples of the categories of intent that have been described. Most teachers are all of these things to different degrees and at different times. A major hypothesis of the study, however, was that of the many contending intentions of a teacher, some are more intensely grasped; and that in specific choice situations, when the chips are down, the most dominant value will emerge as the determinant of what a teacher does. If observed over a period of time, the net effect of dominant intentions should be apparent as a pattern of both teaching practices and consequent student outcomes. This assumption provided a continuing foundation for research throughout all phases of the assessment. In the in-depth part of the study selected teachers were observed over a period of time. One reason for these observations was to determine whether indeed teachers actually do exhibit a consistent pattern of behavior in the classroom.

The H-U-D (Humanistic, Utilitarian, Discipline) model represents an attempt to distinguish in a most generic and meaningful way the present diversity of goals within the field of Social Studies today. It is a theoretical model for identifying within this continuum the focus of the most *dominant* educational intentions of teachers. The word "dominant" deserves emphasis. Even though discrete categories of teachers with a single kind of intent might not exist, it seemed reasonable to assume that significant numbers of social studies teachers might approach their work with one value orientation or another dominating their intentions. If so, might there not be significant relationships among such dominant intentions, the class procedures of the teachers, and the eventual outcomes of their students? Neither the Committee nor its consultant judged any of these intents as better or worse than the others. A major goal of the study was to determine the degree to which dominant teaching intentions, revealed as value orientations, influence various types of outcomes. The success of a program was assumed to exist when intentions and outcomes are congruent. The Committee did not make judgments about the intentions of the teachers who participated. It sought only to identify these value orientations and their consequent impact on the learning process.

THEORETICAL MODELS OF CULTURAL ORIENTATIONS

The H-U-D model thus far discussed complements a second triadic model. This model was called the I-M-T continuum. Both models represent equally important and independent dimensions. The Innovative, or I category stands at one end; the Transmissive or T category stands at the other, and the Moderative or M category respresents a middle range within the continuum. Again, the term "continuum" is essential. It indicates that no one category is self-contained or exclusive; rather, each merges with the other.

The primary concern of the I-M-T model was with the goals of American culture, or more focally, of that area of American culture known as the New England region. Whereas the H-U-D model was deliberately geared specifically to educational values, the I-M-T model emphasized the role of teachers as carriers of the culture and was concerned with their attitudes towards this role.

Figure 1

ORIENTATIONS	INTENTIONS		
	Humanistic	Social Utility	Integrity of Discipline
Innovative			
Moderative			
Transmissive			

As Figure 1, above, suggests, the Committee expected that I-M-T and H-U-D would overlap. Most clearly, T and

D, were felt likely to be congenial. Less frequently, I and H, as defined, might be expected to reflect congenial attitudes. It was not the Committee's intention to draw parallels between the two pairs in any precise way; each of the six categories was expected to reflect attitudes that none of the other five would reflect equally.

Professor Brameld defined I-M-T as follows:

1. **Innovative**, as connoting an attitude toward culture conducive to change, novelty, variation, adventure, audacity, explorativeness, alteration, or other characteristics supporting an orientation toward change. Negatively it may reflect discontent with habitual cultural patterns.
2. **Transmissive**, as connoting an attitude toward culture amenable to preservation, constancy, caution, routine, stability, acceptance, regularity, reinforcement, or to other characteristics supporting an orientation toward preserving the customs and folkways of the culture. It was noted that the transmissive person could favor change or evolution and that he could be dynamic rather than strictly static in his conservatism.
3. **Moderative**, as connoting an attitude toward culture amenable to gradualness, temporal orderliness, careful experimentation, tolerance, flexibility, amenability, open-mindedness, progress, development, evolution, or other characteristics supporting an orientation away from any extreme position. It was noted that this value orientation should not be considered as one of mere compromise or eclectic wavering but that its position on the continuum suggests mobility and the ability to resolve alternative positions.

Both HUD and TMI models represented much more than a survey of practices in the social studies. In a very real sense they probe into the total educational and cultural orientations of social studies teachers, perhaps even a venture in the basis of the social life of future citizens.

SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY

As noted, the instrument designed by Professor Brameld was similar to measures used previously by both Dr. Brameld and by other authors in anthropology and education. It was developed and tested during 1967 and 1968 and administered during the fall of 1968.

During the process of development four major steps were taken. First, two *reliability* tests were undertaken, one with graduate students in education under the direction of Professor Brameld at Boston University, the second with undergraduate students under the direction of Professor Nobuo Shimahara at Rhode Island College. In each case the student groups filled out the instrument twice, a brief period elapsing between the two occasions. No preliminary interpretation was provided, and standard instructions were followed. After the second administration, students were introduced to the HUD and TMI concepts. They were then interviewed to determine whether they felt they had a dominant teaching intention and/or cultural orientation. Of this total, 24 were identified as Transmissive, 37 as Moderate, and 60 as Innovative. Of the total group, 51 others were teaching, or intended to teach, social studies, and expressed a dominant intention as a teacher. Of these 29 were identified as Humanistic, 17 as Social Utility, and 5 as Disciplinary in their intentions.

Following these interviews, scores on the instrument were compared to determine whether all dominantly committed respondents had been placed in the same categories on both occasions of administration. They were. Three items, upon analysis, however, appeared to have elicited different responses on each occasion of administration to the same person. They were subsequently eliminated as unreliable items. The remaining items were considered reliable.

Next, respondents to the inventory were grouped by category and scores compared with results of the interview categorization. Dominant instrument score categories were found in all cases to be the same as those identified by interviewers. No tests or comparisons of intensity were made, however. The results of the correspondence of interview placement and scoring categorization were taken as strong evidence of validity.

A similar procedure was followed with a group of 23 teachers in New York City. This time a companion instrument was administered to determine whether some teachers might be biasing their response as a result of a strong feeling toward the content of the item situation rather than the alternative responses provided to the item situation. Although this yielded interesting responses, no strong biases were found to be interfering. Furthermore, the responses were more uniformly distributed among the six categories measured. There were, for example, 4 Humanistic, 6 Social Utility, and 3 Discipline intentioned teachers. There were 5 Transmissive, 9 Moderative, and 9 Innovative teachers.

As a second major step, *validation tests* were taken by seven peers of Professors Brameld and Shimahara, that is, by professors at Boston University and Rhode Island College. The theoretical models for the instrument; namely, the H-U-D and I-M-T conceptual categories were explained to each peer. He was then asked to complete the instrument, identifying response alternatives, item by item, as revelant to specific HUD-TMI categories. The purpose was to determine whether or not the perceptions of the *peers* coincided with those of the authors of the test, and the students who had previously responded. In other words, did the test measure what it was intended to measure? Again, the ratio of consistency between the established key and the judgments of the peers was extremely high. Only three items previously in question were found to yield inconsistent responses. They were subsequently eliminated.

As a third step, a number of minor changes were made in the wording of other items and instructions as a result of personal interviews with the students and professors who had participated in the reliability and validity tests. The intention here was to eliminate ambiguity or other defects of wording.

Finally, in order to determine whether a sufficient number of respondents might be found committed to each of the categories, the test was administered to 26 selected social studies teachers of expected commitment from each of several New England States. Results were similar to those reported for New York teachers. Even after this "final" step in development, the instrument was field tested still further at two NDEA summer institutes in 1968 (Dartmouth College and the University of Maine), and additional minor changes in wording of instruction and format were introduced.

The summer institute field tests resulted in 379 teachers classified as dominantly Humanistic, 235 dominantly Social Utility, and 247 dominantly Discipline intentioned. This was taken as an indication that enough responses would be revealed in these categories for all phases of the proposed in-depth study. Most of the teachers proved to be either Innovative or Moderative in their cultural orientations. A total of 743 were dominantly Innovative, 633 dominantly Moderative, and 17 Transmissive.

The inventory was approved by the Committee at the conclusion of these many refinements.

It was agreed that its use would alert teachers to the existence of value orientations and would give them insights into their own educational intents. The instrument is not without antecedents in education. A similar procedure was followed by Professor Brameld in his recently published study of culture, education, and change in two Japanese communities.[2]

The final version of the test contains thirty-six items, each with three alternate responses for a total of 108 alternatives. Each item consists of an imaginary situation. The respondent is asked to select from the three alternatives the choice that seems closest to his own beliefs or ways of acting. The key was established to identify H-U-D or I-M-T orientations found to correspond to the alternative choices.

Phase II. ANTECEDENTS of SOCIAL STUDIES PROGRAMS

ORIGINAL DESIGN – In the original design for assessment it was hoped that funds would permit a study of such factors as class size, media and library resources, school size, criteria for student grouping, IQ scores, teacher backgrounds, and community environment. These factors were considered to permit curriculum inputs that otherwise would not be possible. Such antecedents exist prior to the learning process but certainly influence the learning process in every school. It was hoped that in the analysis of selected curricula, certain clusters of antecedents would appear consistently related to high achievement of teacher intentions for learning outcomes.

Dr. Robert Stake of the University of Illinois undertook to develop an instrument that would describe the beginning conditions that would most likely influence the learning outcomes of students and that would also indicate a teacher's perceptions of those conditions. The variables were grouped under five categories: Teacher characteristics, curricular context, instructional materials, physical plant, and school organization.

Professor Stake had constructed an antecedent instrument by March of 1968 which was based upon these five categories. By then the Committee perceived that many of the antecedent factors that affect learning in the total curriculum of the school are, perhaps, not major factors in determining educational outcomes in the social studies. For example, the existence of an excellent gymnasium might affect total curricular patterns but is of little direct influence in the teaching of history. The antecedent instrument presented to the Committee was of such broad scope that it recalled the school-wide standards of accrediting associations. It was not applicable as an instrument specifically related to the determination of outcomes in the social studies. Unfortunately, also financial and time constraints prevented analysis of the numbers of programs originally planned. For these reasons the Committee decided in April, 1968, to prepare its own modified antecedent teacher questionnaire.

Antecedent teacher questionnaire. – The antecedent teacher questionnaire approved by the Committee in the fall of 1968 consists of ten open-ended questions designed to form the basis for a series of interviews with the teachers selected for in-depth study. From the interviews it was hoped that a picture of the teacher's perceptions of his professional position would emerge. When compared with the measurement of his intentions and selected outcomes of his students, certain factors might be identified as characteristic of the successful teacher. "Successful" in this context, of course, means that intents and outcomes are congruent.

Teachers for the in-depth study were identified by November, 1968, and the interviews were conducted during February and March, 1969. The results of this phase of the assessment are included in Chapter Three of this report.

Phase III. TRANSACTIONS and CLASSROOM INTERACTION PATTERNS

BACKGROUND – From the beginning the Committee agreed that an important part of the in-depth study would center on some kind of actual observation in the classes of those teachers selected for the study. Initially, Dr. Terry Denny of Educational Products Information Exchange, provided the Committee with descriptions and recommendations about many published instruments designed to objectify the forces at work within the classroom. It was readily agreed that observations undertaken as part of the assessment should be objectified and standardized to the highest possible degree. During the latter part of 1967 and the first half of 1968 the Committee devoted considerable discussion to the problem of selecting a suitable procedure for recording classroom dynamics.

In July, 1968, Dr. Richard Staudt presented a design for interaction analysis utilizing instruments recommended previously by Dr. Denny and based primarily upon the works of Ned Flanders and E.J. Amidon. Briefly, for those who may be unacquainted with the procedure, it is concerned primarily with verbal interaction in the classroom. Standard procedures have been developed for recording such factors as the amount of time spent by the teacher in asking questions, the amount of time he spent praising or encouraging pupils, the amount of time he devoted to accepting the ideas of pupils or that he devoted to expressing his own ideas, and the amount of time consumed by students talking. In addition, the purposes and activities of the lesson are placed by the observer into a number of predetermined "Time-Use" categories. The purpose of interaction analysis is not to evaluate the effectiveness of the teacher nor to rate him in any manner. Fundamentally, its intent is to reveal the dynamics of the encounter between teachers and pupils through the medium of their recorded verbal exchanges. Previous research[3] has shown this technique useful in discriminating the effects of such factors as direct and indirect teacher influence on attitudes and achievement. It was planned to utilize the same research process in a larger context.

By inspecting the interaction patterns in successful classrooms a consistent series of practices might become evident that might illustrate relationships between teaching practices and student outcomes in the various areas of intention. If so, it might then be inferred that certain practices are more likely to achieve certain teacher intents than others. Such data could be valuable for planning in-service programs as well as in programs of teacher preparation.

Training of observers. – Under the direction of Dr. Staudt, fourteen observers, including Committee members and others, underwent an intensive three-day training program November 6-8, 1968, at the Needham High School, Massachusetts. The classes of Needham High School were made available for the necessary laboratory work. It was Dr. Staudt's opinion that reliable observations and records could be obtained after such an intensive training period. His opinion was substantiated by a reliability analysis that was conducted at the conclusion of the training period. A high degree of consistency was noted in the records made by all fourteen observers in each of the ten categories of concern. More subjectively, the observers, themselves, agreed that the training was of such an intensive and standardized nature that they felt prepared for the task to be done.

Schedule. – Originally it was planned that six classrooms from each of the six states would be selected by the Committee for observations. Each class would be observed during at least five class periods, between the beginning and the last day of work on a given topic. The reason for this spread being that some teachers exhibit different behaviors during introductory and concluding phases of a topic. As explained in introduction to Phase II, participants for all in-depth studies were selected in November, 1968. Observations were conducted through the winter and early spring, 1968-69. During March, and continuing into April, 1969, the quantitative results were tabulated and analyzed. These results are discussed in Chapter Four of this report.

Phase IV: SELECTED STUDENT OUTCOMES

Design. – In order to obtain data indicative of student achievement as a factor influenced by teacher intents, instructional antecedents, and classroom interaction patterns, a pre/post test model was selected. A multi-scale test was constructed by Dr. Marvin Cline of Boston University and it was planned that this test would be used in conjunction with a conventional standardized achievement test in the social studies.

The design of the student outcomes test developed by Professor Cline reflects the desire of the Committee to identify a wide range of outcomes; Dr. Cline's task was to identify an appropriate standardized social studies achievement test, and then supplement it with a measure of outcomes consistent with the Humanistic and Social Utility concepts of teaching intention. It was expected that the supplementary instrument would identify many crucial areas not now widely recognized. After careful review of the literature of measurement, it was agreed that no single instrument existed that would meet the Committee's criteria. For this reason, Dr. Cline assembled an instrument consisting of subscales from a number of standardized tests, each of which identified an area judged most appropriate to the goals of the Committee.

The major categories within the "Social Studies Student Inventory" include such areas as self confidence, racial attitudes, dogmatism, anxiety attitudes toward democratic ideals, toward property rights, toward foreign ideas, attitudes toward the roles of parents, teachers, and peers, and other outcomes whose measurement might be labelled controversial by some observers. Nevertheless, it was felt by the Committee that these kind of attitudes represent important social outcomes of schooling, to which Social Studies should have the most direct contribution. Taken in the strict sense, attitudes are dispositions to act. As such they were felt to be perhaps the best predictors of the manner in which students would act in future social situations. It was assumed that social studies do or should effect these social (or anti-social) attitudes of students.

Professor Cline was satisfied that each of the subscales in his instrument had proved useful in large scale investigations and that validity criteria were well established and relevant to the purposes of the project. These opinions were accepted by the Committee. The instrument was field tested with 40 eleventh and twelfth grade students during 1968 summer sessions in Boston. In August, 1968, Dr. Cline presented a revision that was judged to be about fifty minutes in length. The final version, accepted in October, consists of five sub-tests labelled A, B, C, E, and F, totalling 108 objective items, for the most part multiple choice or true-false. It was assumed that it could be completed within forty minutes.

Administration. – The test was to be given in classes of those teachers selected for in-depth study. Classes were selected upon the basis of similar subject context, grade level and student ability. Classes selected were to be eleventh grade classes in U.S. History. Students tested were to be of average or mixed ability. In this way it was hoped extremes might be avoided and the results of testing be most widely relevant. Pre-testing was to be done immediately upon completion of selection in October. Post testing was to be done in the same classes during April. It was hoped that this schedule of pre and post testing would be adequate to reveal changes representing the impact of the teacher studied.

Summary

The New England Educational Assessment Project in the social studies was conceived as more than a status study or survey of practices in the social studies. It was an attempt to cut through the conventional preoccupations with names, dates, and places as indicative social studies outcomes to identify a broader range of social and particularly *citizenship* outcomes. Most importantly, it was an attempt to develop a way to assess how effective teachers are in achieving their intentions for their students; and to identify some of the input factors which seem to account for the achievement of the more successful teachers. As part of this effort it was necessary to create a way of categorizing and identifying the teaching intentions of several thousand teachers, to study in depth the factors most likely to influence student outcomes; and to find a way of getting at the student outcomes most likely to be predictors of future social and citizenship behavior. These components of the study and findings will be discussed in detail in the next chapters.

Consultants were employed to develop instrumentation and/or procedures to implement each major Phase of the assessment. These consultants, working with their staffs, proceeded through the latter part of 1967 and all of 1968 to develop, field test, and refine measures. Those that were accepted for use by the Committee were, in the opinions of those responsible, validated to the fullest possible degree under the limitations of time and funding within which the assessment operated.

Dr. Theodore Brameld developed an instrument to detect teaching intentions as value orientations of teachers along two continuums. These were termed Humanistic, Utilitarian, and Integrity of Discipline along one continuum, and Innovative, Moderative, and Transmissive along the other. Professor Robert Stake constructed a comprehensive instrument for measuring selected antecedents that was too lengthy for use within the financial resources of the Committee. Hence, the Committee developed its own Teacher Antecedent Questionnaire. Dr. Terry Denny completed the initial planning for the study of classroom interaction analysis, a program that was brought to fruition as part of the in-depth study by Dr. Richard Staudt. Finally, Dr. Marvin Cline produced an attitude scale that was designed to provide a measure of certain student outcomes.

Administration of these instruments proceeded throughout the winter 1968-69 and into the spring of 1969. Practical considerations resulted in many necessary revisions of the original purposes and plans of the Committee. These departures are explained and described in the remainder of this report. The following four chapters consist of detailed analysis of both the procedures and the results of each of the four major Phases of the assessment.

---

1. Florence Kluckhohn and Fred L. Strodtbeck, *Variations in Value Orientations,* Row Peterson & Co., Evanston, Ill., 1961.

2. Theodore Brameld, *Japan Culture Education, and Change in the Communities.* Holt, Rhinehart & Winston, N.Y., 1968.

3. *Teacher Influences, Pupil Attitudes, and Achievement,* U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1965.

CHAPTER TWO

PHASE I: ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION OF THE SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY

INVENTORY ADMINISTRATION

Selection of respondents – Social Studies Teacher Inventories and response forms were sent to each state for all teachers in the NEEAP staff data files[1] who were identified as full time social studies teachers in grades 10, 11, and 12 the previous year. Social studies teachers were considered to be those with three or more teaching assignments in the social studies.

Standard Instructions. - Superintendents of schools in each participating state were informed of the purposes of the study, either in person or by letter, in September, 1968. They were told that high school principals would administer the inventory to all of the social studies teachers in their respective schools, and that inventory booklets, response sheets, and further instructions would follow. Copies of these materials were enclosed for each superintendent to examine. Criticisms and comments were invited. Shortly thereafter, principals were given similar information either in person or by letter. The instructions to principals were quite specific concerning administration of the instrument. It was asked that the inventory be administered to teachers in a group, that it should not be discussed until after all had completed it and returned the booklets, and that it should not be explained ahead of time except in terms of the official description and authorization of the project as described to the principals. Faculty discussion was invited following collection of inventories and responses, and again teachers were invited to communicate their comments and criticisms to the Project Director in their state. This design was intended to reduce any fears that might be felt, either by teachers or by administrators, and to insure a reasonable degree of participation.

Percentage of Return - As is shown in Table I the percentage of forms returned for scoring ranged from nearly one hundred percent in New Hampshire to sixteen percent in Rhode Island. Explanations were sought for the relatively low percentage of return in Vermont and Rhode Island as well as for the relatively high returns in the other three states. (Connecticut did not participate in the study). Both resulted from decisions made at the Department of Education which had the effect of limiting the study to a self selected sample of volunteer respondents.

Table 1

Number and Percentage of Forms Returned for Scoring

State	Number of Teachers	Number Returned	Percentage Returned
Maine	412	317	77
Massachusetts	2,242	1,334	60
New Hampshire	320	314	98
Region* (sub total)	2,968	1,965	66
Rhode Island	424	70	16
Vermont	239	53	22
New England (total)	3,631	2,088	58

Characteristics of the Total Group

Scoring Standards. – The data in Table 2 on the following page show the total number of respondents in each category, HUD and TMI. In this regard it should be noted that "teacher preference" (H,U,D,T,M,I) was determined by a higher score in one category than that occurring in others. For example, for the thirteen questions relating to either H, U, or D intentions, if a teacher scored (H,U,D) = (4,8,1), he was classified as dominantly U. A teacher who scored (H,U,D) = (6,4,3) would have been classified as dominantly H. Thus, the smallest degree of domination could have been a 5, 4, 4 arrangement, if all thirteen questions were answered. If some of the questions were omitted, as might be shown by (H,U,D) = (1,2,4), the teacher was classified as dominantly D. In all instances, the decision was one of higher score in one category compared with those in others. Where there was no higher category score, (H,U,D) = (5,5,3), it was assumed that the teacher displayed no dominant intentions.

Table 2

Dominant Teacher Orientations: All New England Survey

State Number of Respondents by Category	H	U	D	No Pre-ference	T	M	I	No Pre-ference
Maine	140	62	59	56	11	179	100	27
Massachusetts	654	194	278	208	32	622	569	111
New Hampshire	187	50	34	43	2	154	129	29
Region Total	981	306	371	307	45	955	798	167
Percent Responses	50.0	15.5	19.0	15.5	2.3	48.6	40.6	8.5
		1,965 *				1,798 *		
Rhode Island	34	12	18		2	25	33	
Vermont	34	6	6	-	0	20	28	
New England Total	1,049	324	395	320	47	1,000	859	182
Percent Responses	50.0	15.5	19.0	15.5	2.3	47.9	41.1	8.7
		2,088 **				1,906 **		

*Total Respondents in Region.
**Total Respondents in New England

Figure 2 - Humanistic

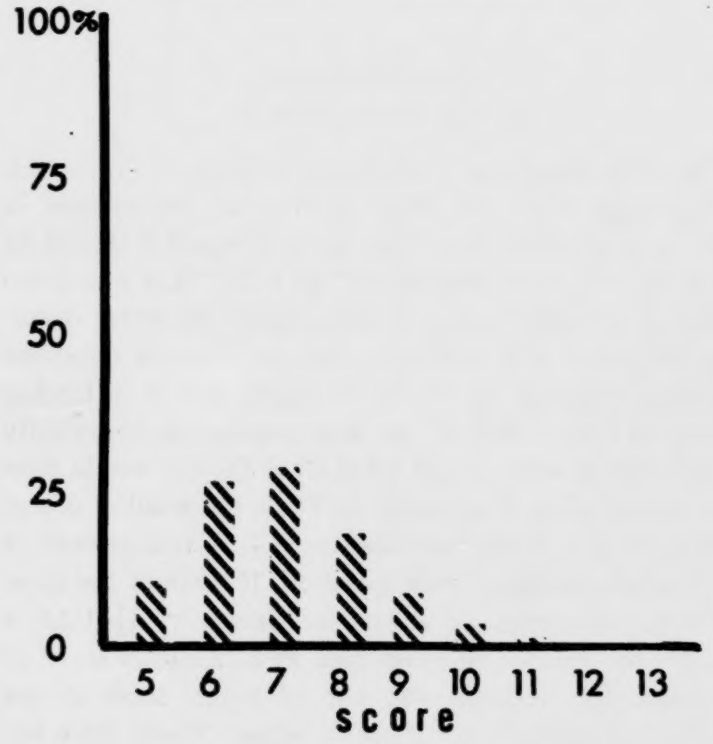
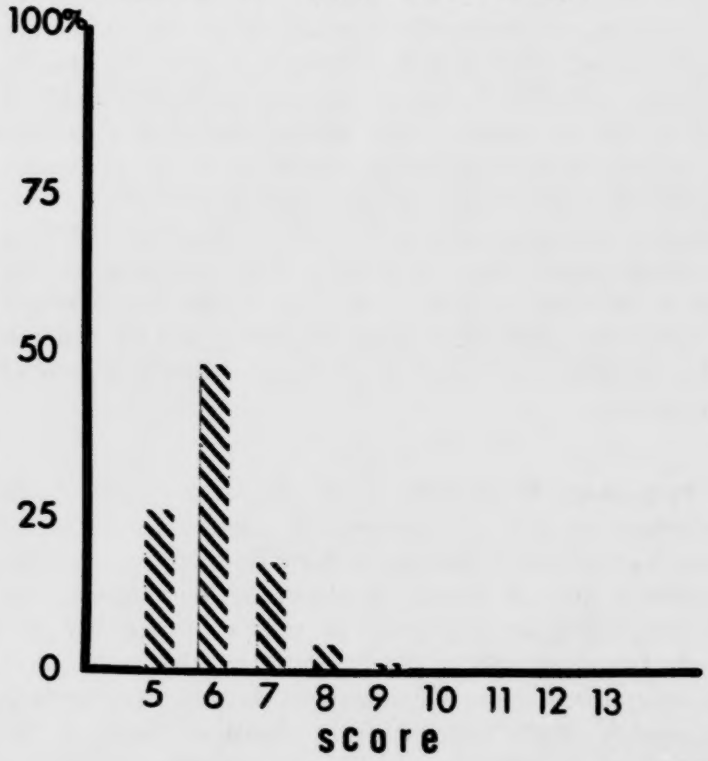


Figure 3 - Social Utility



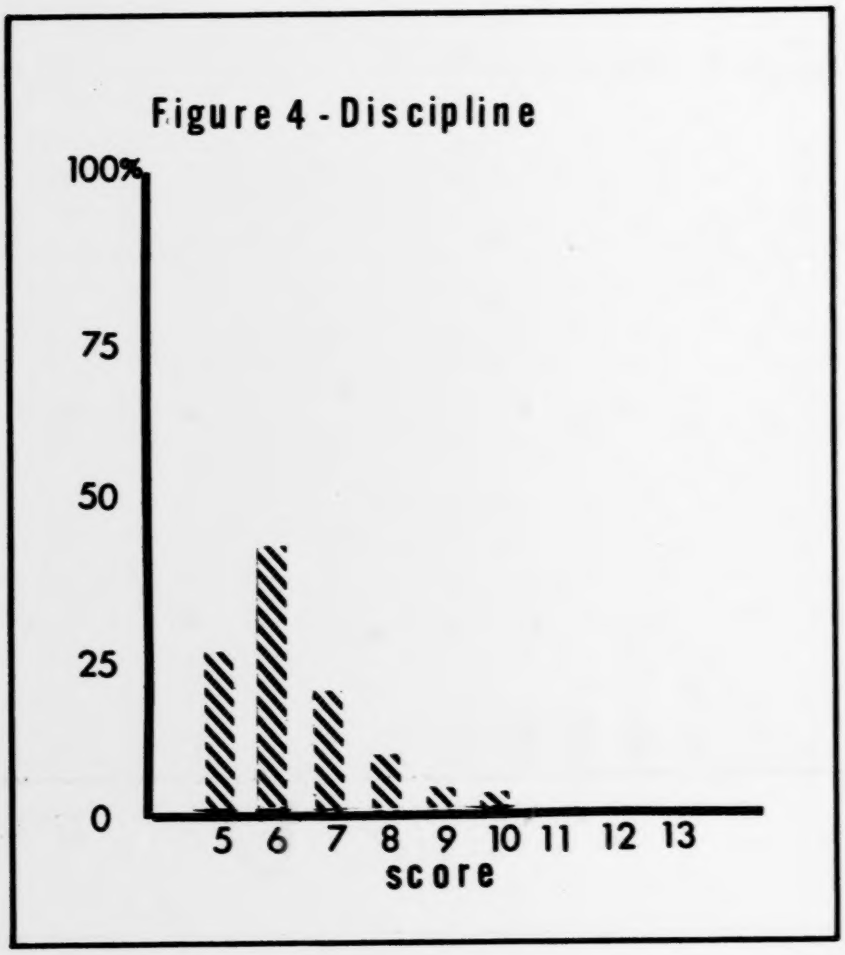


Figure 4 - Discipline

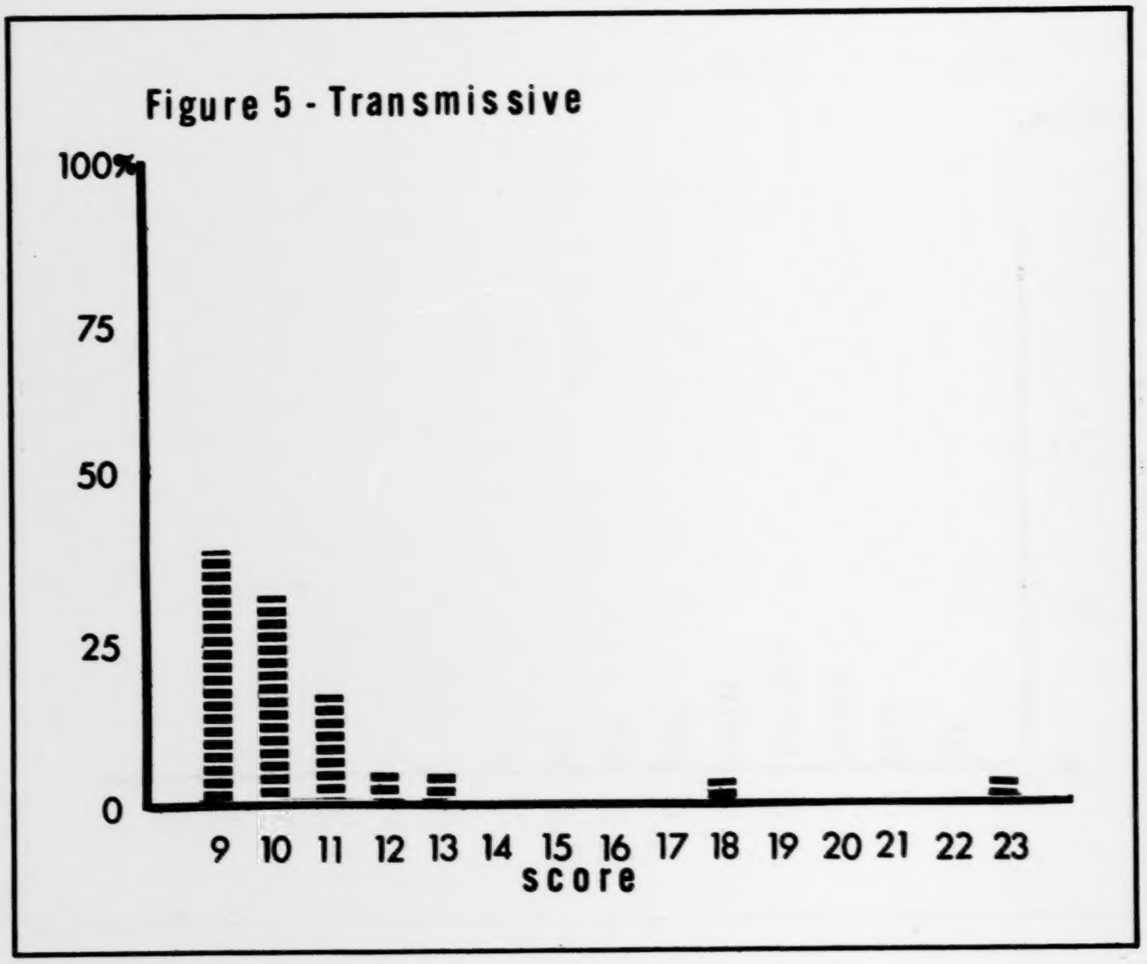


Figure 5 - Transmissive

Figure 6 - Moderative

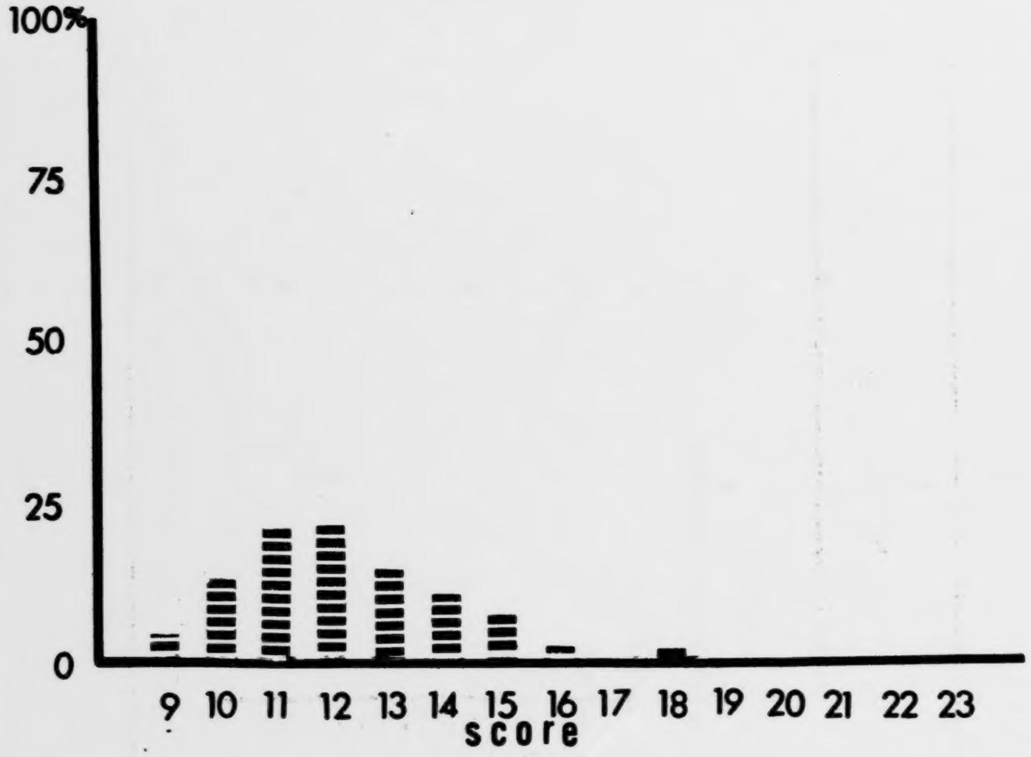
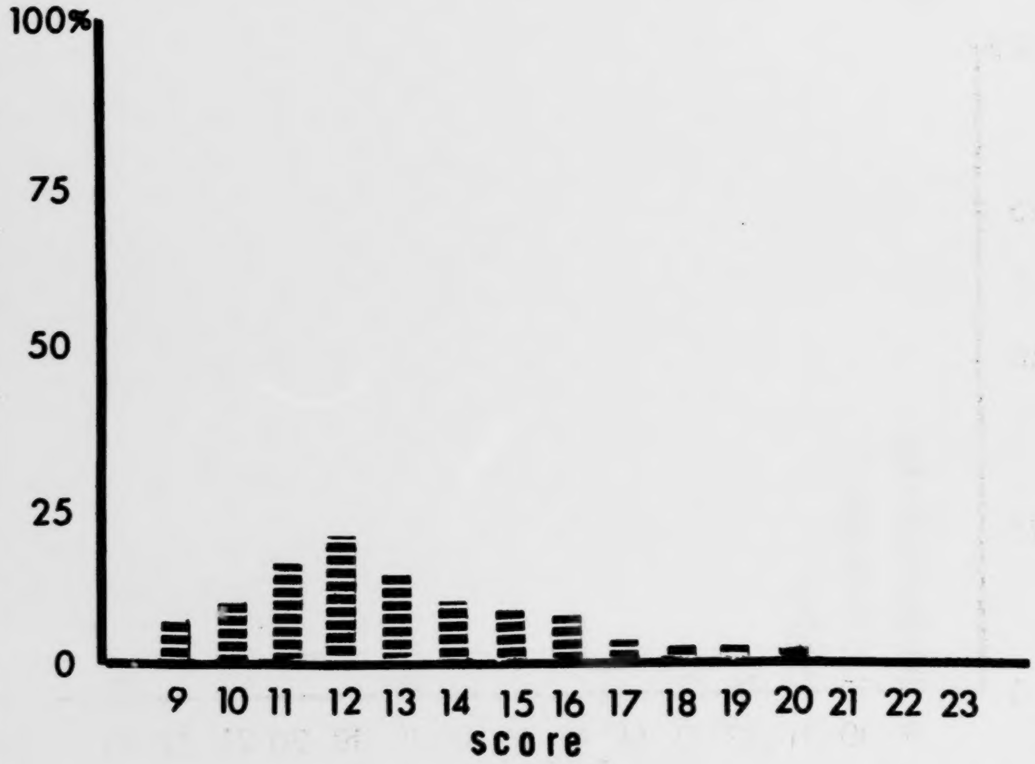


Figure 7- Innovative



Dominant Teacher Orientations: Five New England States

Similarly, the 23 questions relating to the TMI classifications were scored by categorizing a teacher in terms of the category with the highest score. Thus, if a teacher scored (T,M,I) = (10,4,9), he was classified as dominantly Transmissive.

Further, if a teacher scored (H,U,D) = (9,4,0) and (T,M,I) = (4,7,12) he was classified as dominantly H, and, I, or simply HI. On the other hand, if he scored (H,U,D) = (5,5,3) and (T,M,I) = (8,8,7), it was assumed that he displayed no dominant preferences.

These examples might be multiplied to explain any possible interpretation, but in all instances the decision was made by highest score within a category. The total number of dominant inventories included only those displaying a clear predominance of one category as other TMI orientations. Since some 15.5 percent of the respondents did not indicate a dominant response, the number of teachers expressing dominancies was somewhat less than the total number returned. Of 1965 inventories returned in Maine, Massachusetts, and New Hampshire, as shown in Table 2, 1658 showed dominancies for HUD intentions, and 1798 showed dominancies on the TMI orientations. Of 2088 returned in the five New England states, 1768 were dominant for HUD and 1906 were dominant for TMI.

It should be noted that this method of scoring is consistent with Professor Brameld's criteria for categorizing an individual in terms of dominant intentions and orientations. However, the Committee agreed with Dr. Cline that a more rigid scoring standard should be applied to the selection of teachers for the in-depth phases of the assessment. In accordance with Professor Cline's recommendation, teachers identified as dominantly H, U, or D were required to score at least 9 out of the 13 items in the appropriate category. For the T-M-I orientations, 13 of the 23 items were required to fall into one category or another. This provided statistical confidence at the .10 level that chance factors could not account for the scores reported.

Conclusions. – Exmaination of Table 2 suggests a number of conclusions that might be expressed about the general results of the five state survey.

1. An overwhelming proportion of the teachers who responded in each state, in the regional total (Maine, N.H., Mass.), and in the five state total, considered themselves to be Humanistic, H, in their teaching intentions. Fully 50 per cent of the total returns were identified as indicating a dominant commitment to Humanistic goals. Of course, it is not known whether this large percentage represents honestly held intentions or an effort to "beat" the key established for Humanistic intentions. The latter possibility should be recognized but even if so, the implication is that many teachers are either genuinely Humanistic in their teaching intentions or would like to be recognized as such.
2. A majority of Utilitarian, U, and Integrity of Discipline, D, intents were expressed by 15 and 18 per cent of the total number responding. These percentages suggest that significant numbers of social studies teachers either favor these emphases of intention or would prefer to be identified with the particular answers suggested by these categories. It is felt that those with a dominant Disciplinary preference must have felt strongly about their preferences in view of the fears expressed by non-respondents about possible negative value judgments that might be made about Discipline oriented intentions.
3. The totals given in 1 and 2 above (50 percent Humanistic, 15.5 percent Utilitarian, and 19 percent Discipline), total 84.5 percent of those responding. Because there was no clearly dominant commitment in some inventories, it may be assumed either that the instrument did not discriminate the intentions of the missing 15. percent or that this percentage has no dominant intentions or preferred not to reveal them. Whatever the reason, it appears that the Social Studies Inventory did, indeed, identify the dominant teaching intentions of most of those who completed the instrument, that it can discriminate to some degree among the teaching intentions of respondents, and that the largest single group of social stidues teachers either are or want to be known as Humanistic in their intents.
4. The totals in the TMI continuum are also interesting when converted to percentages. Most obvious is the total in Table 2, under the Transmissive category. Here only 47 of the 2088 respondents indicated a majority of Transmissive cultural orientations. This equals only two percent of the respondents and may suggest that social studies teachers in the five New England states either do not accept transmission of the culture as their dominant cultural task or that they do not want to be identified with this orientation. A follow-up of non-respondents in Vermont, consisting of field interviews, revealed that 85 percent of the non-respondents interviewed should be categorized as Transmissive teachers. Hence it may be the case that Transmissive teachers self-selected themselves out of the inventory. The very small percentage, of course, may also

mean that the instrument did not identify teachers with this particular orientation and that teachers either "beat" the key and are hidden among the large numbers of dominantly Humanistic and Innovative teachers or may be found with the 9 percent who did not express dominant TMI orientations.

5. The largest groups of teachers expressing dominant cultural orientations were found to be Moderative, or Innovative, in their majority orientations. Forty-eight percent of the respondents were classified as Moderative and 41 percent as Innovative.
6. It appears that the Social Studies Inventory did identify the dominant cultural orientations of Moderative and Innovative respondents and that most social studies teachers are dominantly orientated towards these categories. Either there are very few Transmissive, T, social studies teachers or for some other reason nearly all respondents deliberately avoided the preferences that suggested Transmissive orientations.

H-U-D and T-M-I Interrelationships. – Table 3, "Dominant Preference Matrices," which fills page 16, is complicated appearing but is essentially easy to understand. It lists the number of teachers with dominant intentions in each of the HUD categories who, also, expressed dominant preferences along the TMI continuum. Figures are given in separate sub-tables for each, for the region, and for the five New England states. This, in sub-table A, Maine, the number 1 in column H, row T, indicates that one teacher in Maine was dominant in both Humanistic teaching intentions and Transmissive cultural orientations. Proceeding down the column, 73 Humanistic teachers expressed Moderative, M, orientations, and 55 who were dominantly Humanistic were also classified as Innovative, I, in their orientations. A total of 238 teachers in Maine expressed dominant preferences, and of these 129 were Humanistic, 55 were Utilitarian, and 54 were Discipline. Along the other scale, 9 were Transmissive, 151 Moderative, and 78 Innovative. The largest single block of respondents in Maine were what might be called H-M in their dominant intentions and orientations. H-I, U-M, and D-M relationships also were characteristic of large groups of teachers.

Similar figures may also be noted in each of the other sub-tables. Either H-M, H-I, U-M, or D-M or D-I appear to be the most frequently occurring interrelationships among teachers expressing joint dominancies.

These figures are subject to variable interpretations. However, it seems important to note that while some of the assumptions of the Committee were illustrated, others were not. For example, the H-I relationship as expected, proved to be strong. It occurred most frequently in three of the five states in the region and in grand total. The H-I relationship was assumed because to be committed to Humanistic goals is to be committed to universals which are only partially exhibited in any culture. A commitment to justice, for example, is a commitment which implies cultural reform – hence an innovation with respect to the culture. Respondents who preferred an Integrity of Discipline or D educational intentions tended to be basically Moderative or to a lesser degree Innovative in their cultural orientations. This finding supported the expectation that academic subject centered teachers would not necessarily have any strong feeling regarding change to their existing culture.

It does appear that a larger proportion of Humanistic teachers tend to be Innovative in their orientations whereas those classified as Utilitarian or Discipline intentioned appear to be more Moderative. Thus, both regional and the five state totals show that Humanistic teachers ranked I-M-T orientations first, second, and third, in that order, while Utilitarian and Discipline teachers ranked Moderative first, Innovative second, and Transmissive third. The consistency of this response throughout the sub-tables is notable.

Using the figures in sub-table G, Table 3, for the Region, the totals for each of H,U,D,T,M, and I columns were converted to percentages of those responding. So stated 60 percent of those responding were dominantly Humanistic, 18 percent dominantly Utilitarian, and 22 percent were Discipline intentioned. Along the other classification, 2.5 percent were dominantly Transmissive, 53.4 percent Moderative, and 44 percent were Innovative. The corresponding cell percentages are also given.

If there were no interrelationships between teacher intentions (H, U, D) and orientations (T, M, I), the approximate frequencies given in sub-table H should have been observed. For example, since 2.5% of the total teachers (1546) were Transmissive, then about 2.5% of the total Humanistic teachers, Utilitarian teachers and Discipline teachers should have been Transmissive. Also, if 60% of the total teachers were Humanistic, we would have expected 60% of the Moderative, Innovative, and Transmissive teacher totals to occur in the M-H, I-H, and T-H cells respectively.

However, the observed results in sub-table G differed significantly from those expected in sub-table H. It was found that 1.4% of the Humanistic teachers were also Transmissive, 3.6% of the Utilitarian teachers were Transmissive, and 4.7% of the Discipline teachers were Transmissive. Along the Humanistic column, the results were that 33% of the Transmissive teachers were also Humanistic, but 51 percent of the Moderative teachers were Humanistic, and 72% of the Innovative teachers were dominantly Humanistic. Thus these percentages should have all been 60%, if there were no relationship between the H-U-D intentions and the T-M-I orientations. Observing the nature of the differences in the observed and the expected frequencies, in sub-tables G and H the following summary statements about certain H-U-D, and T-M-I interrelationships might be made.

1. Humanistic teachers are the least transmissive in their cultural orientations. They seem to prefer Innovation and to a lesser degree Moderation in relation to the culture of their society.
2. Utilitarian teachers are *less* Transmissive in their cultural orientation. They prefer to Moderate their existing culture, with a lesser preference for playing an Innovative role.
3. Discipline teachers are the most Transmissive in their cultural orientations. They prefer, however, to Moderate their existing culture, with a lesser preference for playing an Innovative role.
4. Transmissive teachers, on the other hand, tend to be contrary to Moderative and Innovative teachers in that they prefer Disciplinary intentions, with a lesser preference for Humanistic, and still less for Utilitarian intentions.
5. Moderative teachers largely prefer Disciplinary intentions with decreasing preference for Humanistic and Utilitarian intentions.
6. Innovative teachers do not prefer Utilitarian or Discipline intentions. They are overwhelmingly Humanistic in intention - much more so than Moderative teachers.

Regional majority scores. – Table 4 indicates the frequency distribution of majority scores for each of the H-U-D and T-M-I models. Relating back to Table 2, note that the totals for H-U-D (1658) and for T-M-I (1798) are the same for the Region. However, Table 4 is concerned only with the number of teachers who obtained a particular score in order to be classified as dominant in that particular intention or orientation. For example, under column H, the figure 1 at the top indicated that one teacher selected 12 of the H preferences from the possible 13 and was classified as dominantly H. Further down the column, note that 271 of the H teachers scored 7 in order to achieve this dominant classification. Data in each of the other columns should be interpreted in the same manner. Remember that the figures in the T-M-I columns are somewhat higher because 23 items were related to the T-M-I continuum.

Means and standard deviations for each distribution are shown for descriptive purposes only.

It may appear odd that a very few teachers at the bottom of some columns were classified as dominant in these intentions and orientations even with the score of 1. For example, in column H, at the bottom, one teacher was classified H who scored (H-U-D) = (1-0-0). It might be argued that "dominance" in this instance is rather loosely interpreted. On the other hand, it might also be argued that the teacher who felt strongly enough about these items to omit all except the one where he did perceive a clear response was indeed dominant in that response. In any case, the classification is consistent with the simple majority rule which was adopted for the study.

Data in column T, again emphasize the small number of responses in this category as well as the uncertainty of the response of these teachers. Here, the relatively low mean (10.18 for T compared with 12.04 for M and 12.27 for I) and the relatively high standard deviation (3.10 for T compared with 1.52 for M and 2.57 for I) might reflect more uncertainty of response. The small number of inventories in this category combined with the wide spread of the scores result in an odd pattern that is not subject to firm interpretation. While it might be interesting to speculate about the possible meanings of T responses, such speculation would seem to be pointless in view of the small total classified in this category.

Table 4

Frequency Distribution of Majority Scores for the Region*

Teaching Intentions				Cultural Orientations			
Score	H	U	D	Score	T	M	I
			23	1			
			22			1	
							2
			20				4
			19			1	15
			18	1		2	19
			17			5	23
			16			20	50
			15			59	62
			14			113	84
			13	3		150	119
1			12	2	12	218	156
7			11	7	11	204	127
31		7	10	13	10	123	73
77	5	10	9	15	9	48	53
172	14	31	8	1	8	7	6
271	62	76	7		7	2	1
289	146	149	6		6	1	
120	78	95	5		5		2
6	1	1	4		4		1
3		1	3	1	3		
3			2		2		
1		1	1	1	1	1	1
981	306	371		45	955	798	
TOTAL H + U + D = 1,658				TOTAL T + M + I = 1,798			
M	6.87	6.08	6.25		10.18	12.04	12.27
σ	1.38	.89	1.27		3.10	1.52	2.57

* Total Region = Maine, Massachusetts and New Hampshire

Table 3: Dominant Preference Matrices*

A. Maine

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	1	3	5	9
M	73	44	34	151
I	55	8	15	78
TOTAL	129	55	54	238

B. Massachusetts

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	10	7	11	28
M	270	115	156	541
I	345	55	86	486
TOTAL	625	177	253	1,055

C. New Hampshire

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	2	0	0	2
M	80	32	22	134
I	92	15	10	117
TOTAL	174	47	32	253

D. Rhode Island

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	0	1	1	2
M	17	5	9	31
I	13	3	6	22
TOTAL	30	9	16	55

E. Vermont

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	0	0	0	0
M	15	4	5	24
I	16	2	1	19
TOTAL	31	6	6	43

F. The Five New England States

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	13	11	17	41
M	455	200	226	881
I	521	83	118	722
TOTAL	989	294	361	1,644

G. Region: Observed Values
(Maine, New Hampshire, Massachusetts)

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	13 .8%	10 .6%	16 1.0%	39 2.5%
M	423 27.4%	191 12.4%	212 13.7%	826 53.4%
I	492 31.8%	78 5.0%	111 7.2%	681 44.0%
	928 60.0%	279 18.0%	339 22.0%	1,546 100.0%

H. Region: Expected Values Given Independence

	H	U	D	TOTAL
T	23.4 1.50%	7.0 .45%	8.6 .55%	39 2.5%
M	495.7 32.1%	149.1 9.6%	181.1 11.7%	826 53.4%
I	408.7 26.4%	122.9 7.9%	149.3 9.7%	681 44.0%
	928 60.0%	279 18.0%	339 22.0%	1,546 100.0%

Figures 2 through 7 illustrate graphically the same data that are presented in Table 4. A separate graph was constructed to correspond with the appropriate column in Table 4. Thus, Figure 2 corresponds with column H in Table 4, Figure 3 corresponds with column U and so on. These graphs are included for the benefit of those who may perceive comparisons more easily in this manner rather than by studying columns of numbers. Indeed, Figure 5, which illustrates the number of teachers who were classified dominant at each level for Transmissive cultural orientations, does seem to compare more dramatically with the other Figures than the same data given in tabular form in Table 4.

Further statistical analysis. – A comprehensive statistical analysis was undertaken in terms of each dominant intention (H-U-D) and the corresponding degree of dominance for each orientation (T-M-I). The purpose of this analysis was to discover if there were any provable patterns of interrelationship between specific educational intentions and corresponding cultural orientations. For example, would Humanistic teachers who were also dominantly Innovative show a different pattern of response from Humanistic teachers who were dominantly Moderative? A different pattern of response might have been shown if H-I teachers had scored below the mean in the I category while H-M teachers scored above the mean in the M category. This effort resulted in 18 complex tables which illustrate all possible relationships in both numerical totals and in percentages. These tables are not included in this final report both because of their complexity and because no patterns were noted which illustrated significant relationships. Although a vast amount of data were included in the tables, the interrelationships that might have been discovered simply were not in evidence. For illustration, note that Table 4, column H, shows that 77 teachers scored 9 in the H category. The further analysis showed that 46 of these teachers were dominantly Innovative and scored from 9-20 in this category, and that 22 were dominantly Moderative, scoring from 10-18 in this category. None of the H teachers who scored 9 were dominantly Transmissive. Again, while the data might be interesting to speculate about, no solid inferences or conclusions can be drawn from these data.

It does appear, however, that as intensity of commitment increased, as measured by higher dominant scores within categories, that the relationships noted previously tended to be revealed more clearly. As noted above, strongly Humanistic teachers never exemplified Transmissive cultural orientations. Of 13 teachers with dominantly Transmissive orientations *and* dominantly Humanistic intentions, (T-H), only 2 scored above the mean for the H category. Of 10 teachers who were dominantly Transmissive *and* Utilitarian, only 2 scored above the mean for the Utilitarian category. However, among 14 teachers who were dominantly Transmissive *and* Discipline centered, 8 scored above the mean in the Discipline category. It appears likely that teachers who are Transmissive in their orientations *and* who are also Disciplinarian in their intentions, may tend to be stronger in their Disciplinarian concepts.

Summary

The Social Studies Inventory with standard instructions was completed by 2088 teachers in five of the New England states. Of this number 1768 were found to show dominancies for the H-U-D categories, and 1906 showed dominancies for T-M-I categories.

An effort was made to discover why the percentage of return varied from state to state. In general, the higher proportion of returns are believed to have resulted from a combination of factors; chiefly continuity of personnel throughout the planning and implementation of the Inventory, availability of project personnel throughout the study, and energetic administrative efforts.

Although tentative, the conclusions stated earlier in this chapter appear to be tenable. The Inventory did appear to discriminate among the dominant teaching intentions (H-U-D) of most of those who completed it, and apparently the instrument also identified the dominant cultural orientation of at least the moderative and innovative categories in the T-M-I continuum. Either the teachers who completed the Inventory are authentically identified according to certain educational intents and cultural orientations, or they selected responses to indicate categories with which they preferred to be identified.

Interrelationships among H-U-D and T-M-I preferences were investigated, and it appears that humanistic teachers are more innovative in their orientations than are social utility and discipline teachers and that social utility and discipline teachers are more moderative than humanistic teachers. The transmissive, cultural orientation was rejected or avoided by nearly all those who responded.

Analysis failed to reveal further patterns of interrelationship except for the possibility that those who are transmissive also tend to be concerned with discipline goals. This should be an area of exploration for future investigators in view of the fact that 85 percent of the non-respondents interviewed in a follow-up study were classified as transmissive in the cultural orientation and discipline oriented in intention.

---

1. These files represent the result of another NEEAP project designed to establish a State Information System comprising records for each school and each teacher in New England.

CHAPTER THREE

IN-DEPTH STUDY: THE ANTECEDENT TEACHER QUESTIONNAIRE

Selection of Teachers

The original design of the assessment called for 36 teachers to be selected for intensive study during the in-depth phases of the project. Selected teachers would include only those whose scores on the Social Studies Inventory demonstrated clear-cut dominants in one of the H-U-D or T-M-I categories. It was expected that for an H-U-D selection the teacher would score at least nine out of the 13 items in a particular category. For a T-M-I selection the score was set at 13 of the 23 items. Assuming equal representation from each of the six states, and six teachers identified with each of the categories of intent or orientation, the total of 36 teachers was anticipated.

When Connecticut withdrew from the study, the anticipated number was reduced to 30. Later, when it was found that significant numbers of Transmissive orientations simply were not obtained, this category was deleted. Also, it should be remembered that participation in the in-depth study was voluntary and that even some of those finally selected might have been expected to decline.

Eventually it was decided to select the "most dominant" teachers available in each of the H-U-D and M-I categories, with due regard for reasonable geographic distribution, but not with the requirement of state representation. Teachers were to be teaching eleventh grade, United States history to average ability classes. Some of these invited to participate, declined. The reason given most frequently was concern for the intensity of the proposed in-depth analysis. There was also some hesitation to be examined and observed and particularly to allow students to be examined by an outside agency.

The final selection included 26 teachers: nine from Massachusetts, five each from Rhode Island and Maine, four from New Hampshire, and three from Vermont. All except three met or exceeded the minimum degree of dominance established for selection. The three exceptions were included for geographical reasons even though they were classified U with scores of eight. All of the others scored nine or higher within the H-U-D continuum or 13 or higher in the M-I. The final group included seven in the humanistic category, four each in the social utility and discipline categories, five who were dominantly moderative, and six who were classified as innovative. The dominant category rule adopted for the New England phase of the study classified each of these teachers in both intents and orientations. On this basis, 11 were H-I, eight were D-M, three were H-M, and two each were U-I and U-M.

Characteristics of Teachers and Schools Selected

The twenty-six teachers selected for in-depth study ranged in age from 22 to 64. Their teaching experience also varied widely, from one to forty-two years. Sixty-five percent had been in their present position since beginning their teaching. Most of the group had taken a university course within the last three years. A few had not had a course for ten years or more. Thirteen of the teachers had earned Masters degrees, nine had Bachelors degrees. One had some course work toward a Masters, and two had completed over thirty hours toward a Doctorate. Twenty-one were men, five were women. All of the teachers taught primarily juniors or seniors. The size of the schools involved in the in-depth study also varied. One exceeded 2500 in enrollment, four were between 1500-2000, nine were between 1000-1500, seven were between 500-1000, and five were less than 500. Thirteen of the schools were classified as suburban, eight were rural, and five were urban.

The Antecedent Questionnaire

Description–This instrument consisted of ten open-ended questions designed to elicit teachers' perceptions of the beginning factors most likely to influence student outcomes. Responses to each question were tabulated, and the results are discussed in detail in the following pages. In general, the open-ended nature of the questionnaire led to some unnecessary misunderstandings which might have been avoided if an objective format had been adopted. For example, one question asked for the teacher's attitude toward the ability groups he works with. This was interpreted to mean either a preference toward certain types of pupils or an attitude toward ability grouping as an aspect of school organization. The two interpretations are quite different in their implications. Another question asked what outside influences affect the teacher's classroom performance. At least six of the respondents interpreted this in very personal terms, citing their own "liberal" attitudes, their own academic or professional preparation, their own outside reading, or their own extensive experiences.

The leading nature of some of the questions also was unfortunate. One question asked for the means used by the teacher to keep abreast of changes in his professional field. The assumption was that these teachers *do* keep abreast of their professional fields, an assumption which, even if true, should not have been implied in the question. Another question asked the teacher to name major limitations that inhibited the full performance of his duties. Here, again, the implication is that such limitations exist and ought to be named. Only four of the respondents answered "none" to this question.

These criticisms could easily have been avoided by using an objectified, multiple-choice instrument with, of course, space for free responses if none of the choices fitted a particular situation.

Administration–It was expected that interviewers would ask the questions and record, as specifically as possible, the answers of respondents. However, in some instances the respondents were handed the questions and asked to write the answers. "This teacher feels" suggests that the interview technique was followed. "I feel" suggests that the teacher wrote the answer himself.

Some evidence indicates that interviewers tended to modify certain questions so as to limit the number of open-ended responses. For example, in one state it appears that a question relating to the teacher's relationships with his colleagues had been redefined to separate social from professional relationships.

Probably these variations from standard procedure did not affect the results of the questionnaire, but they are mentioned to provide an accurate description of how this phase of the assessment was carried out.

Interpretation–As with any prose or free response measure, when the instrument is not objective it is necessary to objectify or categorize the responses in some manner. Working together, the project writer and one of the statisticians read all 26 responses to the first question and agreed on a number of categories within which all the answers could be classified and tabulated. The same procedure was followed for the remaining nine questions. Then, working independently, each tabulated all of the responses for all questions within the agreed-upon categories. Finally, the two tables were compared for consistency of scoring. Of the 260 talleys recorded on each of the separate tables, no more than a dozen specific differences of interpretation were noted. Several of these resulted from simple error, and the remainder were resolved by agreement. The general results are believed to be as objective an interpretation as was possible.

Results of the Antecedent Questionnaire

The results are given in the same order as the questions in the questionnaire. Categories of response are given for each question. In a few instances actual answers are included for purposes of illustration. (Perhaps it should be emphasized here that none of the participating teachers are or will be identified by any person connected with the project.) The questionnaires completed by specific teachers have been destroyed, and analyses of work done in specific classes as part of the in-depth phase of this study are not available for examination.

1. *How free does the teacher feel he is to control his classroom activities?*

Three categories of response were established for this question: (1) Complete Freedom, (2) Relative Freedom, and (3) Restricted Freedom. The overwhelming response was one of complete freedom, 24 of the 26 responses being so classified. Words and phrases such as "complete," "absolutely no interference," "all the freedom I expect," "very free," "no pressure," and so on, appeared throughout the responses. Only one answer was classified as relatively free and then only because the respondent used the word "relatively" to describe his situation. One was classified restricted for the same reason. The teacher stated that his freedom had been restricted because, oddly enough, his teaching methods were considered to be too free.

2. *What outside influences affect the teacher's classroom performance?*

It was particularly difficult to categorize the responses to this question because of the widely varying interpretations given to the question itself. However, four general types of response appeared dominant. (1) This category included what were termed the "usual" responses, including the influences of parents, administrators, and state requirements. (2) Special answers were tabulated together in one category. These included such influences as the economic condition of the community, local controversy, overly protective parents, and college town atmosphere. (3) "None" or no outside influences constituted a clearly identifiable group of answers. (4) "Wrong answer" constituted a category where the teacher clearly misinterpreted the question and gave a trivial or an irrelevant response.

Five of the respondents replied in what was described as the usual manner. Six named some special local outside influence that affected their performance. Nine, the largest single block, replied "none" or stated that no outside influences or pressures affected their work. Finally, six people answered the question by naming personal or internal influences that could scarcely be categorized except as "wrong" answers. For example, "The Teacher ...feels that the principal outside influence is the liberal attitude acquired during her courses in the school of education." These responses were felt to be internal rather than external, hence, incorrect responses to the sense of the question.

3. *Does the community support the aims of the teacher's instruction?*

This question was relatively easy to categorize since 19 teachers answered flatly "yes" and in some cases provided evidence of community support. Only one teacher replied "no," while four mentioned partial or limited support of their aims. A number of perceptive respondents commented that their aims were not really known by the general community since aims are professional in nature. However, in general, it appeared that programs and hence, by inference, their aims were supported. Two teachers fell into a fourth category of simply not knowing if their aims were supported.

4. *Does the teacher have access to the instructional materials he needs for the full performance of his duties?*

Three classes of response were sufficient for this question. First, those who answered affirmatively without qualification: second, those who replied "no" or who stated that instructional materials were very limited and, third, those who indicated some limitations, but not severe ones. Eighteen of the 26 respondents replied "yes" to this question. Only two answered "no". Six felt a mild lack of accessible instructional materials.

5. *What is the teacher's attitude toward the ability groups the teacher works with?*

The responses to this question were very difficult to categorize because, as stated, the question allows for multiple interpretations. First, it was interpreted in terms of whether or not the teacher prefers to work with pupils of particular levels of ability. A second interpretation had to do with the type of ability grouping preferred by the teacher. The former interpretation relates to the teacher's attitude toward pupils. The latter indicates his opinion toward school organization for instruction. With this in mind, five categories were finally established within which to tally the responses. (1) Those who stated that they had no preference, that they liked all pupils. Ten respondents fell into this category. (2) Four teachers who said that they preferred to work with top level ability groups. (3) Those who want or like some form of ability grouping. Five respondents were placed with this group. (4) Five other respondents prefer or want heterogeneous grouping. Two of these argued that ability grouping is especially inappropriate in the social studies where the processes of democracy should permeate all instruction. (5) Two responses were considered to be inappropriate to the sense of the question. Both of these merely described their pupils without expressing a preference.

6. *What means does the teacher use to keep abreast of the changes in his professional field?*

Only three basic responses were given for this question. First, were those who mentioned what might have reasonably been expected, attending conferences, reading academic or professional journals, membership in organizations, and so forth. Nearly all of the 16 teachers placed in this category mentioned "reading" first. Second were two respondents who mentioned college courses or a college contact. Third were eight teachers who listed both college courses or degrees and the usual responses listed with the first category. Probably a good many of those placed in the first category also could have listed college contacts but simply forgot to mention them.

7. *What is the relationship with his colleagues?*

As might have been predicted, the responses to this question fell into only two classes. Overwhelmingly, these teachers believed that their relationships with colleagues are excellent. Only three felt some kind of limited relationship. The other 23 defined their excellent relationships with such words as "open", "cooperative", "respect", "close", "friendly" and other similar terms.

8. *Does the teacher feel that he is adequately prepared to deal with the content of his field?*

Predictably, nearly all of these teachers said "yes" to this question, 23 answering in some highly affirmative manner. Interestingly, two responses classed as affirmative at first appeared negative. That is, both replies stated that a teacher never is prepared fully to deal with the content of the social studies, a content which always is changing and expanding. Adequate knowledge requires continual study. These perceptive responses were seen as those of teachers who most likely are well prepared. The three negative answers should be described. Two were by teachers who felt the need of further study in specific social sciences, geography and economics, in order to gain a better understanding of history. The third was that of a teacher whose academic major was in an entirely different academic discipline from that normally regarded as preparation for social studies.

9. *What are the major limitations the teacher feels inhibit the full performance of his duties?*

Lack of time and extra class duties were cited in answer to this question as the major limitation affecting full performance. Eight answers were classed in this category. Seven others mentioned large class size and/or lack of facilities. A third category included answers related to personal or professional limitations, such as lack of knowledge in related subject areas or problems in motivating pupils. Four teachers fell into this category. Four also answered the question with the word "none" indicating that they feel no major limitations. Finally, the answers of three respondents suggested lack of support for their work as an inhibiting factor.

10. *What factors have contributed to the success of the teacher's performance?*

This question resulted in a wide variety of answers. Thirteen respondents attributed their success to good relationships with pupils or sincere liking for pupils. Six others mentioned good relationships with colleagues or administration. Three cited good academic preparation. Two listed good working conditions. One mentioned sound professional preparation and the final respondent was not sure.

Relationships of Intentions to Outcomes

The findings of the Antecedent Teacher Questionnaire appear to result in straightforward reporting that does not lend itself to further statistical analysis. For example, the fact that 24 of the 26 respondents felt completely free to control their classroom activities is a fact that speaks for itself. It would be meaningless to speculate about the H-U-D intents of M-I orientations of the one teacher who felt restricted. By and large this same comment applies to the rest of the questionnaire. The numbers are so small that wherever 16 or more responses fell into a single category, there was not much left to analyze.

However, there were five questions where it was agreed that further analysis of the responses in terms of H-U-D and M-I dominance might show whether or not certain categories of dominance were related to particular categories of response. Table 5 illustrates the distribution of H-U-D and M-I scores between certain categories of response in Questions 2, 5, and 10.

Table 5

Responses to Certain Questions on the Antecedent Teacher Questionnaire Classified by H-U-D and M-I Dominance.

A. – Outside Influences that Affect the Teacher's Classroom Performance

	H	U	D	Total	M	I	TOTAL
(1)*	6	0	5	11	7	4	11
(2)*	4	3	2	9	5	4	9
TOTAL	10	3	7	20	12	8	20

*11 respondents who named any influence (1) vs. 9 respondents who specified none (2).

B. – The Teacher's Attitude Toward Ability Groups

	H	U	D	Total	M	I	TOTAL
(1)*	6	1	3	10	5	5	10
(2)*	7	2	5	14	8	6	14
TOTAL	13	3	8	24	13	11	24

*10 respondents who expressed no preference (1) vs. 14 who preferred some type of grouping of pupils (2).

C. – Factors that Contributed to the Teacher's Success

	H	U	D	Total	M	I	TOTAL
(1)*	10	0	3	13	5	8	13
(2)*	4	4	5	13	7	6	13
TOTAL	14	4	8	26	12	14	26

* 13 respondents who emphasized good pupil relationships (1) vs. 13 who attributed their success to some other reason (2).

Subtable A contrasts the number of H-U-D and M-I teachers among 11 respondents who named an outside influence that affected their classroom performance with the number of H-U-D and M-I teachers among nine respondents who specified none. Obviously, with approximately equal numbers in the H, M, and I columns, no significance can be attached to this distribution. Even though all three of the U teachers fell into the bottom row, the number is felt to be too small for generalization.

Subtable B contrasts H-U-D and M-I distributions among ten respondents who expressed no preferences among pupils, with the distribution among 14 teachers who specified some type of grouping. Again, this is a nice, even distribution that indicates no specific relationships.

Subtable C contrasts the number of H-U-D and M-I teachers among 14 respondents with pupils or liking for pupils, with the dominant concerns of 13 teachers who attributed their success to some other factor. Again, the D, M, and I columns suggest no relationships. Although all four of the U teachers attributed their success to something other than good pupil relationships, one hesitates to generalize on the basis of this small number. The totals in the H column may be a different matter. Here it appears fairly safe to conclude that humanistic teachers do tend to attribute their success to their liking for pupils or their good relationships with pupils.

An additional count was made of the number of H, U, D, M, and I teachers among 18 respondents who felt that they did have access to the instructional materials needed for full performance. The count was almost exactly according to chance, and no relationships were indicated. Among those answering the question in this manner were four H, three U, three D, four M, and four I.

A final count was made of the number of H scores in each of the five categories of response established for Question 9, relating to factors seen by the teacher as inhibiting his full performance. Once again, humanistic teachers were distributed throughout five categories, and no significance was indicated.

The decision to depart from the original design's inclusion of a standardized achievement test, and the absence of reliable evidence of change in the student outcomes measures used, prevented an analysis of the relationship of antecedents to student outcomes. It had been expected that both the antecedents and classroom interaction patterns of the successful teachers[1] could be analyzed to determine what relationships existed between these factors and teacher success.

The Social Studies Inventory – A Comparison of Teachers and Administrators

In order to determine the possible effects of conflict or harmony between the intentions of teachers and their administrators, the dominant intents and orientations of the teachers who participated in the in-depth study were compared with those of their immediate school administrators. In smaller schools this was the principal, while in larger schools the questionnaire was completed by the chairman of the Social Studies department.

In order to determine what the effects of conflict of intention and orientation between teachers and their administrators might be, the antecedent questionnaire results were compared with Social Studies Inventory scores for both groups. The teacher referred to earlier, who replied to the question by saying he felt restricted, and who had been criticized for allowing his students too much freedom, turned out to be a dominantly innovative teacher working under a dominantly transmissive principal. The effect of their opposite orientation toward the culture may have been a factor influencing this teacher's sense of restriction. In response to question three (relationships to colleagues) those teachers who indicated the existence of problems turned out to be teachers who had cultural orientations contrasting with their administrators. Responses to question nine (role of the system in inhibiting teachers), two of the three inhibited teachers exhibited cultural orientations which contrasted with those of their administrators.

While the number of individuals included in the sample is insufficient to support any generalization, the evidence available seems to suggest that even though teachers and administrators with similar teaching intentions are typically found together (most teachers had administrators with similar dominant intentions) where there is a conflict of cultural orientations, these may be grounds for lack of harmony in teachers' perceptions of his role compared with that of his administrator.

Summary

Teachers selected for the in-depth phases of the assessment included teachers whose scores on the teacher inventory exhibited the most dominant commitment within each of the H-U-D and M-I categories and who were also teaching eleventh grade, United States history to classes of average ability. After due attention to a reasonable geographic distribution, a list of potential participants was prepared. From this list 26 teachers agreed to participate.

The first phase of the in-depth study consisted of the administration of an Antecedent Teacher Questionnaire, largely given by interview. This instrument included ten open-ended questions designed to discover the teacher's perceptions concerning certain aspects of the teaching environment. Although some of the questions may have been misunderstood, the general results suggest that the group as a whole feel free to control their own classroom activities. For the most part, they believe that their communities support their instructional aims. In general, they are satisfied with the accessibility of instructional materials. As a group, they do considerable reading, state that they participate in the affairs of professional and academic associations and continue to take college courses. They believe that they enjoy excellent relationships with their colleagues. They feel adequately prepared to deal with the content of their field. Success in teaching, they state, result from good relationships either with pupils or with others.

Few consistent relationships were detected between questionnaire responses and the category models of teachers intentions and cultural orientations. However, it does appear that humanistic teachers tend to attribute their success to liking for pupils and/or good relationships with pupils to a far greater degree than do teachers in the other categories of dominance. Finally, although the number of Social Utility teachers was too small for conclusions, it was noted that all of those reponding attributed their success to factors other than good relationships with pupils. All of those responding to another question stated that some outside influence did affect their classroom performance. Further research, centered on the perceptions of dominantly Social Utility teachers, might prove fruitful.

When the cultural orientation of teachers and their administrators were compared, divergent orientations were frequently found associated with a sense of restriction and the role of the "system" as an inhibiting factor.

It was not possible to assess the impact of the ten antecedent factors on student outcomes as originally intended.

---

1. Successful teachers were assumed to be those whose students exhibited outcomes consistent with their intentions for them. The outcome measures are described in Chapters IV and V.

CHAPTER FOUR

INTERACTION ANALYSIS: PHASE III OF THE ASSESSMENT

Interaction Analysis: A Brief Review

Design Objectives. – In choosing to analyze the verbal interaction patterns of classrooms, the committee was led by two insights of recent educational research. The first has been expressed most succinctly by Gil Boyer,[1] "It is surprising to find that *how* teachers say *what* they say appears to be a better predictor of change in pupil behavoir than anything else educational research has turned up to date." The second is derived from the work of Ned A. Flanders who has demonstrated that the dynamics of interpersonal exchange between teachers and students are typically revealed through their verbal interaction patterns. Verbal patterns make rather dull reading by themselves, but when taken as evidence of the kind of encounter occurring between a teacher and his students, they form an important learning variable to which student outcomes may be related.

Previous studies in interaction analysis have shown that verbal patterns are highly indicative of the kind of encounter occurring within the classroom. But more importantly, variations in the classroom dynamics revealed by such analysis have positively correlated with important differences in both student cognitive outcomes and student attitudes. Through this study the committee was led by one basic question, do the social dynamics of the classroom hold the key to better understanding of the variables which affect student attitudes and achievement?

Evidence available in the literature of human relations studies tended to strengthen the suspicion of the committee that the social studies objectives identified as humanistic and social utility might be most affected by the interpersonal dynamics of classroom relationships. The acquisition of skills necessary for effective management of people and social situations, depends particularly on the opportunity for participating in various kinds of social encounter and an exploration of their effects. The extent to which course outcomes termed Discipline Integrity might be influenced by classroom dynamics was not known, yet this too seemed a fruitful object of inquiry.[2]

Definition and Caution. – As was described in Chapter One, interaction analysis is a method of recording and then analyzing the verbal communication patterns occurring within a classroom. Included is talk by teachers to students, talk between students and the teacher, and students with other students. Consequently, classroom observations were scheduled on days when the primary class activity consisted of verbal communication rather than such activities as watching a film, doing library work, taking a field trip, or silent reading and study. This is mentioned to emphasize that the concerns of Phase III were with the dynamics revealed through verbal interactions rather than with other dimensions of the learning experience such as course content, or resource materials.

The interaction occurring in selected classrooms was characterized under ten specific categories of interaction. The percentage of time spent in categories, for example, lecturing, represents a portion of the classroom time devoted to this type of verbal activity. Analysis of the specific content of talk was beyond the scope of assessment, although it might provide an interesting area of investigation in some future research.

Following standard procedures, the trained observer is able to record at three-second intervals the verbal transitions occurring during the entire class period, to describe the communication flow within the classroom, and to record the purposes and activities of the class within a number of time use categories.

Interaction categories. – The ten basic categories derived from the work of Ned A. Flanders were followed by the observers during this study. These categories consist of specific types of verbal interaction, as follows:

I. **TEACHER TALK**
  A. *Indirect Influence*
    1. ACCEPTS FEELING: accepts and clarifies the feeling tone of the students in a non-threatening manner. Feelings may be positive or negative. Predicting or recalling feelings are included.
    2. PRAISES OR ENCOURAGES: praises or encourages student action of behavior. Jokes that release tension, not at the expense of another individual, nodding head or saying "um hm?" or "go on" are included.
    3. ACCEPTS OR USES IDEAS OF STUDENT: clarifying, building, or developing ideas suggested by a student. As a teacher brings more of his own ideas into play.
    4. ASKS QUESTIONS: asking a question about content or procedure with the intent that a student answer.
  B. *Direct Influence*
    5. LECTURING: giving facts or opinions about content or procedure; expressing his own ideas, asking rhetorical questions.
    6. GIVING DIRECTIONS: directions, commands, or orders to which a student is expected to comply.

7. CRITICIZING OR JUSTIFYING AUTHORITY: statements intended to change student behavior from nonacceptable to acceptable pattern; reprimanding a student; stating why the teacher is doing what he is doing.

II. **STUDENT TALK**

8. STUDENT TALK – RESPONSE: a student makes a predictable response to a teacher. Teacher initiates the contact or solicits student statement and sets limits to what the student says.

9. STUDENT TALK – INITIATION: talk by students which they initiate. Unpredictable statements in repsonse to teacher.

III. **CATCHALL**

10. SILENCE OR CONFUSION: pauses, short periods of silence and periods of confusion in which communication cannot be understood by the observer.

Observational procedures. – Fourteen observers undertook an intensive three-day training program in the classes of Needham High School, Massachusetts. Not only were they, in general, satisfied that they had mastered the technique sufficiently for the purposes of the assessment, but a reliability check also indicated a high consistency of response for observations of the same classes.

During observations, the technique requires that a tally be entered in the appropriate category once every three seconds. Thus, if a teacher lectured and continued to lecture, tallies were entered appropriately until a transition occurred. This is mentioned to illustrate the large number of tallies that resulted from these observations. In a typical 50-minute period, approximately 1,000 entries would have been made, since each teacher was observed for five classes, with the exception of New Hampshire, where three visits were made, more than 100,000 separate bits of information were acquired.

All observations were recorded on Digitek computer forms and edited for completeness and accuracy by observers before processing.

Interaction patterns. – After collection of data on the communication flow within each of the classrooms, patterns were studied through the use of interaction matrices using the ten-category Flanders System. In the construction of the matrices each of the ten categories is called a *state,* and the change from one state to another is called a *transition.* For example, if a teacher asks a question (category No. 4), and a pupil responds (category No. 8), it may be said that a 4–8 transition occurs. Such a 4–8 transition is recorded by placing a mark in row 4, column 8. A "matrix," of course, is merely a graph for tabulating some type of information. Figure 8 illustrates a simple hypothetical interaction matrix for a series of transitions.

Figure 8. A Hypothetical Interaction Matrix

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Teacher accepts feelings	1										
Teacher praises	2		III			I					
Teacher accepts ideas	3										
Teacher questions	4								/		
Lecture	5				/	III 卌 卌 卌 卌				/	
Directions	6										
Criticism	7										
Student response	8										
Initiated student talk	9										I
Silence or confusion	10										

In Figure 8 each of the ten categories appears before a row of blocks and at the top of an equivalent column. The hypothetical tallies indicated here would be interpreted as follows.

The large number of tallies at the intersection of Row 5 and Column 5 show that the teacher was lecturing. The single tally in Cell 5–4 shows that he interrupted his lecture to ask a question. He moved *from* lecturing Row 5 to asking a question Column 4. After this, a student responded, as indicated by the tally in Cell 4–8. The transition was from Row 4, teacher asking a question to Column 8, student response. At this point the teacher praised the pupil for his answer, and a tally was entered in Cell 8–2. The transition had moved from Row 8, student response, to Column 2, praise by the teacher. Then the teacher assumed lecturing as shown by the tally in Cell 2–5. He had moved from praise Row 2 back to lecture Column 5. He continued to lecture for more than three seconds, and this was interpreted as a return to Cell 5–5, from lecturing to extended lecturing. From lecturing Row 5, however, the teacher was interrupted by an unpredictable student statement. The transition moved from Row 5 to Column 9, student initiated talk, and thus the tally in Cell 5–9. The final transition was from Row 9, the unpredictable student talk, to Column 10, confusion, and there is a lone tally in Cell 9–10. Had the confusion lasted for more than three seconds, additional tallies would have appeared in Cell 10–10 indicating a transition from confusion to extended silence or confusion.

For the purposes of statistical analysis, the matrices from a single class period (during which the class was in one to five different time use categories) were combined and from this data values for interaction variables were computed as described below.

Statistical Analysis

Interaction Analysis Matrix Interpretation. – By this time the project had gathered a relatively large amount of data from which many variables might have been measured. Hundreds of hypotheses could have been named and many thousands of ways devised to test these hypotheses. Obviously, in both Phase III and Phase IV the statisticians needed the counsel of the Committee and its consultants in order to identify the important relationships to be investigated. This was necessary both to exclude irrelevant analysis and also to insure that the original intents of the study were carried out.

Twenty-two characteristics of the matrices were selected as input variables for analysis in relation to data from other phases of the project. They were selected because in previous interaction analyses they had been shown to be related most frequently to variations in student outcomes and were therefore thought to be most likely factors influencing the social studies course outcomes selected for study by the project. These variables are denoted as T Variables and are defined and interpreted as follows:

T 1. The sum of the totals of Columns 1 through 7 equals percent of time the teacher talks.

T 2. The sum of the totals of Columns 8 and 9 equals percent of time the students talk.

T 3. *5–5 Cell.*–High frequencies indicate teacher provides information for extended periods of time and teacher is deliberate in his communication.

T 4. *2–2 Cell.*–High frequencies indicate teacher extends his praise statements. Longer praise statements often include the criteria for praise.

T 5. *6–6 Cell.*–High frequencies indicate longer, more complete directions, which often include reasons or explanations about how to do something so that the students can proceed with their work in a more independent fashion.

T 6. *3–3 Cell.*–High frequencies indicate the teacher develops the ideas of the student with considerable care.

T 7. *8-8 and 9-9 Cells.*–High frequencies indicate that the students have an opportunity to develop their own ideas.

T 8. *10-10 Cell.* High frequencies together with high criticism may indicate resistance, lack of cooperation, or indifference. Together with more favorable questions and student talk, they may indicate thoughtful pauses.

T 9. *7–7 Cell.*–High frequencies may indicate teacher anger or lack of control, which may be reflecting a failure to interest pupils.

T10. *The area of the intersection of Columns 1–3 and Rows 1–3.*–High frequencies indicate the teacher's concern for positive motivation and reward.

T11. *Area of the intersection of Columns 6–7 and Rows 6–7.*–High frequencies, particularly in the 6–7 and 7–6 transition cells usually indicate a sequence where the teacher gives directions, the students resist, the teacher criticizes, then gives more directions, and the students resist even more, etc. The above sequence, in conjunction with loading in the 6–9 cell, often indicates overt student resistance to teacher directions.

T12. Both items 10 and 11 indicate teacher's attention to process problems of classroom management and control, one more positive than the other.

T13. *Area cross formed by Rows 4–5 and Columns 4–5.*–Reflects emphasis on subject matter and the content of instruction.

T14. *Cells 4–8 and 8–4.*–High loading in these two cells indicates a short answer drill situation.

T15. *Columns 1–2 through 7–2.* –Indicate praise buried in teacher talk, which is not a direct reaction to student talk.

T16. *Columns 8–2 through 9–2.* –Indicate praise following student talk, which is generally more positive than praise as described in item 15.

T17. *Area of the intersection of Columns 1–4 and Rows 8–9.*– Indicates a sensitive teacher response to student talk.

T18. *4–8 Cell.*–Indicates teacher is asking fact-finding or narrow question leading to a predictable student response.

T19. *4–9 Cell.*–Indicates teacher is asking a broad question leading to a non-predictable student response.

T20. *4–5 and 4–6 Cells.*–Indicate teacher is not giving students an opportunity to respond to teacher's questions.

T21. *I/I + D Fraction.*–The total number of tallies in Columns 1, 2, 3, and 4 divided by the total number of tallies in Columns 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 provides the fraction of indirect to indirect and direct teacher statements. An I/I + D Fraction of .5 means for every direct statement there was an indirect statement. I/I + D Fractions less than .5 indicate more direct statement. Fractions greater than .5 indicate more indirect statements.[2]

T22. *i/i + D Fraction.*–The total number of tallies in Columns 1,2, and 3 divided by the total number of tallies in Columns 6 and 7 provides a ratio comparing statements concerned with motivation and control of the classroom, eliminating the statements concerned with subject matter which are present in the I/I + D Fraction.

Row totals. – Totals for each of the ten rows in the interaction matrix were calculated and numbered correspondingly as "R" Variables. The values of the variables T-1 to T-22 and R-1 to R-10 were computed for each class observation period. These values were averaged across the five observation periods to compute a summary statistic for the classroom. The summary statistics for T-2 through T-20 are given in terms of the number of transitions per 1000 (the expected number of transitions at 3-second intervals for a 50-minute class period).

Findings

A word concerning numbers. Over five hundred matrices were compiled from the raw data supplied. Even though a great amount of data has been gathered, it must be kept in mind that the sample consists of a relatively small collection of selected classrooms. In particular, the relevance of the analysis is grounded in the Social Studies Inventory and the classification of teachers as dominantly H, U, or D (Humanistic, Social Utility or Discipline) in their educational intentions, and as M (Moderative) or I (Innovative) in their cultural orientations. The findings represent patterns for most extreme examples of each dominance of intent and orientation.

Some hypotheses were expressed in the very early meeting minutes of the Committee and of its consultants. Others were implied by the design and made explicit when the need for statistical analysis required formulation. For the purposes of this study, an hypothesis is a statement giving assumed relationships among variables of interest which is to be accepted or rejected on the basis of the statistical evidence. The following hypotheses should not be interpreted as value judgments about H, U, or D teachers. They provide the framework within which the analysis is done and were developed early in the project.

1. *Humanistic teachers have higher frequency of student initiated talk than discipline teachers.*

Student initiated talk has been found by Amidon and Flanders[3] to represent 8% of the time in the average classroom. No assumptions were made as to whether this is good or bad. It was felt, however, that humanistic teachers would be more concerned with students as persons and with facilitating their developing identity. A relatively high occurrence of student talk would be consistent with such a concern.

2. *Humanistic teachers more frequently accept student feelings than discipline teachers.*

By virtue of their intentional concern for humanistic values, humanistic teachers would be expected to be more receptive of students' feelings than discipline teachers who would be expected to be more concerned with the subject.

3. *Humanistic teachers have greater frequency of silence, not confusion, than discipline teachers.*

This hypothesis could not be tested since silence and confusion are combined in the data and cannot be separated.

4. *Humanistic teachers praise more frequently than discipline teachers.*

The average teacher spends between 1 and 2% of the time in the classroom in praise.[4] Although support of student initiative is clearly related to the conceptual model of humanistic intentions, it also appeared logical to assume that teachers concerned with people in terms of humanistic values would relate more warmly to their students, and that this might be expressed in the classroom as praise. Discipline intentioned teachers, on the other hand, could be expected to relate their feelings more strictly to the subject content. The effect of these differences will be dealt with in Chapter V. The importance of these differences and their relationship to teacher intentions is supported by Flanders findings. Flanders has shown in his studies that "the major differences in the use of influences between the teachers whose students learned the most and those who learned the least are illustrated by the use of actions classified under categories 1, 2, and 3."[5]

5. *Discipline teachers ask questions more frequently than humanistic teachers.*

The relatively greater concern of discipline teachers for subject matter, it is assumed, would be exhibited in greater subject oriented interaction. The humanistic teacher, on the other hand, it was assumed would create a climate of spontaneity in which questions would not be necessary in order to elicit student participation.

6. *Discipline teachers blame more frequently than humanistic teachers.*

The concern of the discipline intentioned teacher for the academic subject should find expression in behavior inhibiting non-academic responses, that is in repression of spontaneous activity. Student resistance to repression would elicit blame from the teacher.

7. *Discipline teachers give directions more frequently than humanistic teachers.*

Another example of the higher direct influences of the discipline teacher is giving of directions. This is assumed as a corollary to the discipline intentioned teacher. Focus of concern with the subject and its central place in mediating the relationship between teacher and pupils. Humanistic teacher concerns for students' own natural development would imply less need for direction and as mentioned earlier, greater reliance on categories, 1, 2, and 3.

8. *Discipline teachers lecture more than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

The discipline teacher with a commitment to subject matter and informing the student should imply greater reliance on transmission of information by lecture. The humanistic teacher would rely to a greater extent on insight as a method of promoting learning; the social utility teacher, upon investigation and experience.

9. *Discipline teachers have less participation than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

Discipline teachers, it was felt, would be less concerned with student talk, would be more concerned with communicating information through lecture; hence, less concerned with student reactions and interpretation of the subject. Humanistic teachers, on the other hand, would be expected to encourage the articulation of spontaneous and creative student ideas. Social utility teacher, too, would view participation of students as essential to practical skill building.

10. *Discipline teachers have less student-to-student talk than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

Student-to-student talk would have little relation to obtaining information about the subject so essential to the discipline teacher. It was assumed the teacher would be the main source of information about the subject. On the other hand, for reasons mentioned above, student talk would be highly important to the aims of the humanistic and social utility teacher.

11. *Discipline teachers have fewer unanticipated answers by students than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

This hypothesis was assumed to follow from the discipline teacher's dominant concern for the core content of the subject. If such teachers are both competent within their subject area, and effective in securing student acceptance of their aim, then one would expect student talk to relate rather narrowly to the subject. Unanticipated student talk would then occur largely when there is a lack of clarity or comprehensiveness in the presentation of the subject. At the other extreme would be the humanistic teacher's desire to maximize spontaneous student initiative and internal synthesis of the subject matter. The social utility teacher would expect students to contribute practical applications of the subject through its transfer to other areas of knowledge and experience.

12. *Discipline teachers accept student ideas less frequently than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

In theory the discipline teacher's concern is with the subject in relation to the learner, not the learner in relation to the subject. Student ideas are therefore less important than those of the teacher who is the chief source of ideas on the subject. For the humanistic teacher, the converse is the case. To encourage the natural and spontaneous emergence of independent student ideas, the humanistic teacher would be expected to maximize time spent in acceptance of student ideas. Social utility teachers would find acceptance of student ideas essential to promoting transfer and application of knowledge.

The hypothesis pertaining to differences between H, U, and D teachers in regard to values of the interaction variables were tested by the use of both parametric and non-parametric procedures. In particular, T tests and multiple range tests were used for variables in which group means (such as the mean T-1 value for H, U, and D teachers, respectively) appeared to have substantive interpretation. Non-parametric rank correlation procedures were used in studying association between two variables measured on an ordered scale. Analysis of variance tests were carried out to study hypothesis in which preliminary comparisons indicated that more sensitive procedures might prove fruitful.

Inconsistent and inconclusive variables. – Some of the T,P, and R variables previously discussed yielded little or no information for the following reasons:

1. Some variables exhibited variability both between successive observations of a single teacher, and among teachers included in a single category of teaching intentions. This made it impossible to use average values to represent a typical pattern. The following variables fell into this group:

   T6, T8, T11, T16, T19, P4, P5, P9, P12, R2, R3, and R10.

   This need not be interpreted, however, as evidence of unreliable observations. The most effective teachers are reported by Amidon and Flanders to be those who demonstrate flexibility in their classroom roles. In 1965 they concluded, "Teachers who were able to provide flexible patterns of influence, by shifting from indirect to direct with a passage of time, created situations in which students learned more. The students of teachers who were unable to do so learned less."[6]

Further research into the relationships of variability of teacher intention and student achievement, than reported in this study, might prove fruitful.

2. Some of the variables were uninformative because of values smaller than the variability between observers, notable T20, R1, and R7.[7]
3. Data compiled for social utility teachers either tended to fall between humanistic and discipline teacher results or were too inconsistent to be meaningful. Hence, social utility teachers were eliminated from extended analysis.

Table 6. T and R variables. – The final column in the table shows the data for the total sample. Although this table appears formidable, it is not difficult to understand. First, each of the T and R variables in the first column corresponds to the descriptions of these variables given earlier in this chapter. To interpret the rows it is necessary to refer back to these descriptions.

Second, except for T21 and 22 which are percentages, all of the numbers are given in average rates per thousand transitions. Thus, in Row T1, Column H, the number 593.2 indicates that the teachers classified as humanistic teachers gave 593.2 transitions to the T1 variable for every thousand transitions. Looking back at the T1 variable, it is seen to summarize the amount of teacher talk. Converted roughly to time, therefore, it appears that during verbal interaction H teachers talked about 60 percent of the time. Similar interpretations can be made for all other T and R variables and for all other columns.

Third, the numbers in parentheses at the top of each column show the number of teachers classified in each category. For purposes of this analysis those classified as dominant in the stated intents or orientations were only those who had shown very strong dominance in the particular category. Meaningful comparisons can be made among the H, U, and D teachers, between the M and I teachers, and between those classified as H-I or D-M.

Totals, Total Sample. – Perhaps the most interesting column from an educational viewpoint is the last one in Table 6, which described the total sample. First, note that the total for T1, Teacher Talk, equals 666.4. This suggests that these teachers, as a group, did the talking about 66 to 67 percent of the time. The total for T2, Student Talk, indicated that pupils did the talking about 25 to 26 percent of the time. T1 and T2 do not total 100 percent because there were periods of time which were not classified specifically either as teacher or student talk. For example, T9, Teacher Anger or Lack of Control, totals only a fraction of one percent, but suggests time that was not classified as teacher or student talk. Flanders reports that in most classrooms *someone* is talking about 67% of the time. Two-thirds of this talk is teacher talk. Typical teachers talk then only about 44% of the time, far less than the 66% reported for the in-depth study group.

The Committee would not suggest that the high percentage reported in this study is either too much or too little teacher talk, but it should be noted that Flanders has reported the ideal to be approximately 50%. Actually, while the average teacher has been found to talk 44% of the time, and the students talk 30% of the time in the average classroom. The average reported in this study, then greatly exceeds the averages reported by Flanders.

The teacher or administrator will have to decide for himself whether his uses of time given for the T variable are what *should* prevail. The concern of this study has been to show what did prevail in the classes of the 26 teachers who participated. Chapter V will comment upon the relationships of these practices to student outcomes.

Totals for the R variables show similar results and are consistent with the T findings. The total for R5, R6, and R7, which reveals direct teacher influence or talk, equals 50 to 51 percent of the time. A teacher is termed direct if R + R6 + R7 total more than 50 percent. In larger samples,[8] about 70 percent of all teachers have been found to be direct. The totals for R8 and R9, Student Talk, come to 26 percent of the time. As mentioned earlier this is less than average. Teacher Praise, R2, was found to occur at the rate of eight transitions per thousand, slightly less than one percent of the time. This is less than that exhibited by the average teacher. According to Flanders and Amidon, the average teacher spends between one and two percent of time in praise.[9]

Response by categories. – As noted, because of extreme variability within some categories, some of the averages given for T and R responses were difficult to interpret. When an average results from extremely variable numbers, its meaning as representative of a typical pattern is in doubt. This should be kept in mind when studying the data in Table 6. Figures at first glance appear to suggest wide differences between the H, U, and D teachers, the M's and I's, or the H-I's and D-M's, may in fact be of dubious significance. Thus, if the four utilitarian teachers scored 40, 30, 50, and 520 for a given variable, the average of 160 for that variable would be misleading. Such an average could not be meaningfully compared to a similar average for the nine Humanistic teachers if their scores had all clustered about 120.

Only three of the hypotheses stated and discussed earlier in this chapter can be said to be supported by the data. Each hypothesis is re-stated below. The variables against which each was checked is identified, and the results in terms of Humanistic, Utilitarian, and Disciplinary intents are stated.

1. *Humanistic teachers have higher frequency of student initiated talk than discipline teachers.*

Comparisons were made for R9 and T7. Data for T7 neither support nor refute the assumption. Data for R9 (total time given to student talk) shows a clear difference in averages between groups. Student initiated talk comprised approximately 20 percent of the time compared with six and eight percent for social utility and discipline intentioned teachers respectively. This was taken as strong evidence for validation of the hypothesis.

2. *Humanistic teachers more frequently accept student feelings than discipline teachers.*

Comparisons were made for R1 and T10. Values for T10 are too variable for meaningful use. The data from R1 shows humanistic teachers accept student feeling twice as much as the average teacher reported by Amidon and Flanders. Discipline teachers spent slightly less time than the average teacher in acceptance of student feeling. Unfortunately, techniques for statistical proof of significance are not appropriate in areas with such small percentage differences. (One percent vs. five percent for humanistic teachers and four vs. five percent for discipline teachers).[10]

3. *Humanistic teachers have greater frequency of silence, not confusion, than discipline teachers.*

It was not possible to test this hypothesis since it separated silence from confusion, and these were combined in data furnished to the analysts.

4. *Humanistic teachers praise more frequently than discipline teachers.*

Table 6

Classroom Interaction Variable: Response by Category

Variable Code	Units	H(9)*	U(4)	D(5)	M(7)	I(9)	H-I(5)	D-M(4)	Total Sample (26)
T 1	Rate per 1,000	593.2	814.0	694.3	676.3	623.2	661.1	681.5	666.4
T 2	"	309.3	150.7	214.5	234.4	306.4	263.4	210.3	256.3
T 3	"	378.3	589.1	412.8	428.5	376.5	403.5	414.7	430.3
T 4	"	2.2	.5	.5	.6	2.2	3.5	.2	1.1
T 5	"	21.2	8.3	7.2	10.4	20.9	26.8	5.7	14.4
T 6	"	13.4	49.9	23.4	19.2	37.8	12.7	10.0	[illegible]5.5
T 7	"	64.7	45.6	63.9	66.9	65.4	107.5	63.9	56.4
T 8	"	49.4	11.8	58.3	53.9	34.6	38.6	69.8	40.0
T 9	"	4.7	.6	.6	1.7	5.3	7.7	.8	2.6
T10	"	17.2	51.8	25.7	22.2	42.4	18.0	11.9	28.4
T11	"	27.4	9.0	8.0	12.5	27.6	36.8	6.7	17.8
T12	"	.6	.2	.1	.2	.6	.8	.1	.3
T13	"	514.6	718.5	609.5	599.9	507.3	563.8	621.1	579.9
T14	"	37.4	48.8	80.2	75.1	42.0	51.6	86.6	54.0
T15	"	3.7	1.1	.9	1.2	3.5	5.4	.5	1.9
T16	"	4.8	3.4	10.1	10.2	5.6	4.4	12.2	5.7
T17	"	37.6	46.7	73.3	62.7	49.8	41.7	70.3	50.7
T18	"	27.8	33.2	57.4	52.0	30.7	38.0	58.9	39.1
T19	"	11.1	13.3	10.0	5.5	11.3	6.6	12.2	9.1
T20	"	5.8	7.7	5.5	5.7	4.9	6.3	6.1	6.3
T21	per cent	25	22	32	30	29	26	31	26
T22	per cent	54	70	68	70	61	50	63	61
R 1	Rate per 1,000	1.0	.8	.4	.5	.7	.9	0.0	.8
R 2	"	9.1	4.7	11.1	11.7	9.6	10.6	12.9	8.0
R 3	"	28.7	74.0	59.3	45.9	65.7	33.1	35.0	50.8
R 4	"	87.0	84.4	137.9	121.5	87.6	109.9	147.0	100.7
R 5	"	427.6	634.1	471.6	478.4	419.7	453.9	474.1	479.2
R 6	"	31.7	12.6	11.9	15.4	31.3	40.2	9.9	21.9
R 7	"	8.1	3.3	2.1	2.9	8.6	12.6	2.6	5.1
R 8	"	103.0	90.5	137.6	135.8	112.3	168.5	140.4	110.0
R 9	"	206.3	60.3	76.8	98.6	194.1	94.9	69.9	146.4
R10	"	97.5	35.3	91.2	89.3	70.4	75.5	108.1	77.2

* The number of teachers in each category is enclosed in parentheses.

Comparisons were made for R2, T4 and T15, T16 and T17. Although the figures given in Table 6 would indicate the reverse to be true, actually R2 and T16 are too variable for meaning, and all figures in T15 are too close to zero. This leaves only T17, which was felt to furnish insufficient evidence by itself for a solid conclusion. However, whatever evidence there is would favor the discipline teachers rather than the humanistic teachers; hence, the hypothesis is not supported.

5. *Discipline teachers ask questions more frequently than humanistic teachers.*

Comparisons were made for R4, T18 and T19. The hypothesis is supported by nearly all of the evidence available. A significant number of humanistic teachers asked questions less frequently than the discipline teachers. Values for R4 reveal that discipline teachers spent approximately 14 percent of their time in questions. Humanistic teachers spent only about nine percent of their time in questions. Further, the T18 variable showed a similar pattern. T19 was questionable, but it was felt that the weight of the evidence supports the hypothesis.

6. *Discipline teachers blame more frequently than humanistic teachers.*

Both R7 and T9 give scores too close to zero for meaningful comparisons. The group of humanistic teachers spent 0.8 percent of the time in criticism, while the discipline teachers spent 0.2 percent in criticism. It is obvious that both values are far below that reported by other researchers. According to Amidon and Flanders, criticism consumes between 3 and 4 percent of this time in the average classroom. That evidence from the present study, though meager, suggests humanistic teachers use criticism most frequently.

7. *Discipline teachers give directions more frequently than humanistic teachers.*

Comparisons were made for the R6 and T5 variables, and the evidence strongly supports the reverse of the hypothesis. That is, the evidence indicates that humanistic teachers give directions more frequently than discipline teachers.

8. *Discipline teachers lecture more than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

Using R5 and T3, the evidence suggests that utilitarian teachers lecture more than either discipline or humanitarian oriented teachers. There is no significant difference between the humanistic and discipline teachers.

9. *Discipline teachers have less participation than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

Comparisons were made for R 8, T 2 and T 20. No evidence was noted to support the hypothesis, and the variability was so large in all of these categories that no other hypothesis can be suggested.

10. *Discipline teachers have less student-to-student talk than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

Comparisons were made for the R 9 and T 7 variables. Analysis suggests that the hypothesis is possibly true. Although T 7 scores were too variable for meaningful analysis, the R 9 comparison bears out the hypothesis. Further study should be made to determine the relative number of student-to-student transitions for each group of teachers. Such analysis was not done because the frequencies were too small to allow reliable interpretation of the data.

11. *Discipline teachers have fewer unanticipated answers by students than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

This hypothesis was checked by comparing the R9 and T7 variables for each group. It appears warranted upon the basis of evidence utilized in evaluating the previous hypothesis.

12. *Discipline teachers accept student ideas less frequently than humanistic or social utility teachers.*

Comparisons were made for the R 3 and T 20 variables. R 3 scores were too variable for comparisons to be meaningful. T 20 scores were too close to zero. Hence, the hypothesis is neither supported nor rejected.

In summary, only three of these hypotheses were supported by the evidence. The reverse of the hypothesis, however, is probably true for three others. Insufficient evidence was found to support or to reject the remaining five. Variability of the scores contributed to some lack of confidence in using averages to typify a characteristic style of the teachers in terms of models of teaching intention. An increase in the size of the sample might have yielded more defensible averages because in very small samples, the influence of any variability is magnified.

P variables (profile variables). – Analysis of the P variables and attempts to relate them to the T and R variables as well as to the categories of intention and orientation yielded no significant results.

Summary

Using the ten basic categories derived from the work of Ned A. Flanders, fourteen trained observers made at least three, and in most instances, five visits to the classes of 26 teachers who participated in the in-depth study. During observations, interaction transitions were recorded on computer forms, edited for accuracy, and subsequently processed. More than 100,000 items of information were obtained. This information was studied by the use of composite interaction matrices which were constructed for each time use category, each observation, and in summary form for each teacher who participated. Time use category matrices were not used.

To interpret the information, 22 T variables were defined, as were 14 P or Profile variables. The ten R, or row, variables corresponded to ten categories of the Flanders System. The twelve hypotheses relating to Humanistic, Social Utility, and Discipline intentioned teachers were developed by the Committee and stated for investigation.

Totals for the T and R variables indicate that for the total sample, the teachers talked at least 66 percent of the time. Students talked at least 25 percent of the time. At least 64 percent of the time that the teachers talked they were giving extended lectures. About 87 percent of the time given to all verbal interactions were given to subject matter or content. Totals for none of the other transition categories extended beyond five or six percent, and most fell to a fraction of one percent. It is not possible to suggest whether or not the pattern of verbal interaction indicated by these figures is proper for Social Studies teaching, without relating such patterns to student outcomes as a function of teaching intentions. This was the main purpose of the study and will be taken up in the following chapter.

Analysis of the Profile variables added little to the study. Efforts to determine whether teaching practices were consistent with the expected behavior of teachers (T & R variables) within each category of teaching intention (H, U, D) yielded a variety of results. Statistical analysis of some hypotheses was hampered by variability in the averages reported. Only about half of the expected patterns emerged. In three cases, practices opposite to those expected occurred. This raises three possibilities, first that the *teaching practices observed may not be consistent with the goals of some of the teachers observed* or two, that the *categories for recording the student-teacher encounter were not appropriate to reveal such consistencies of intention and action,* or three, that the *expected behaviors were themselves not consistent with the categories of teaching intention.*

---

1. Although considerable research into this topic has been done by Ned Flanders, most of the findings relate to elementary students. For a summary, readers may want to refer to Phi Delta Kappa, June 1969. Vol. L No. 10.

2. *Ibid.*

3. *Role of the Teacher in the Classroom,* Amidon and Flanders.

4-9. *Ibid.*

10. Humanistic teachers have greater frequency of silence, not confusion, than discipline teachers.

CHAPTER FIVE

ANALYSIS OF STUDENT OUTCOMES

Introduction

The final phase of the assessment consisted of testing in the classes of teachers selected for the in-depth study. The original design called for a rigid schedule of pre and post testing, using a series of attitude scales designed to measure selected student outcomes, in combination with a standardized test of student achievement. It was hoped that results of this testing would yield measures of student outcomes consistent with the theoretical models of teaching intentions.

As a result, inferences could be made regarding the *success* of these teachers in reaching their intended objectives. It was also thought that certain classroom patterns shown by the interaction analysis might tend to be related to the achievement of particular student outcomes among the most successful teachers. In particular it was thought that the patterns described in the twelve hypotheses of the previous chapter would show a correlation with specific outcomes. The implication, of course, is that if the intentions and orientations of teachers are reflected in practice, or if these concerns are related to the outcomes of students, then it may be concluded that a teacher's intentions, and perhaps even his philosophy of education, are a factor to be considered in program building.

The factual and relatively uncontroversial nature of the content of achievement tests is such that high confidence can be placed in the scores, particularly the difference found between pre and post test scores. Moreover, only such a test could adequately measure the outcomes of a discipline intentioned teacher. On the other hand, scores on attitude scales are subject to much larger variability, and conclusions derived from such scores can be stated with much less confidence.

THE STUDENT SOCIAL STUDIES INVENTORY

Development. – Dr. Marvin Cline of Boston University developed a multiscale instrument designed to identify areas judged most appropriate to the Committee's criteria of relevance. The student outcomes measure, termed the Student Social Studies Inventory, consisted of a number of sub-scales derived from published instruments whose use in educational work was already widespread. The parent instruments had all proved useful in large scale investigations, and their validity was assumed to be well established.

The tests from which the final selection of items was made are as follows:

Christie, R., *Impersonal Interpersonal Orientations and Behavior.* Columbia University Department of Social Psychology, 1962 (Mimeo).

Christie, R., *The Prevalence of Machiavellian Orientations.* Paper presented at the Annual Meetings of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, September, 1964.

Coleman, James, et. al., *Equality of Educational Opportunity,* Washington: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1966.
Remmers, H. N. & Radler, D. H., *The American Teenager,* Indianapolis: Bobbs-Menill, 1957.

Rokeach, M., *The Open and Closed Mind,* New York: Basic Books, 1960.

Sarason, S. B., Hill, K. T. & Zinbardo, P. G. A longitudinal study of the relation of test anxiety to performance on intelligence and achievement tests. *Monographs of the Society for Research in Child Development.* No. 7, 29, & 98 - 1964.

From these tests a pool of approximately 400 items was assembled. After Committee review, a core group of items were selected as a basis for field testing. The purpose of field testing this instrument was to determine some of its parameters such as total testing time, time required for each of the sub parts, comprehensibility of the items to the population, appropriateness of the items to the population, and so on. Note that these purposes specifically exclude validity and reliability. These characteristics had been previously considered in selecting the scales from among well established and well known instruments.

On the basis of field testing which was conducted with eleventh and twelfth-grade boys in a 1968 summer work-study program in Boston, certain scales were eliminated because of inconsistent responses. A final battery was assembled that could be completed within 45 minutes.

Description. – The final instrument consisted of five major scales designed to differentiate among the attitudes of students in the various areas of role modeling, self identify, democratic and racial attitudes, personal and international dogmatism, test anxiety, and orientation toward social manipulation. A number of multiple-choice items were included for each of these areas, and for each item the student was confronted with from three to five choices among which to select his degree of agreement or disagreement. A logical scoring key was established, and minimum and maximum values were established for each of the sub scales.

Seventeen variables termed "Z" variables were used in this report. These are shown in Figure 9.

Figure 9

Student Outcome Variables

Name	Values		Interpretation	
	Min	Max	Low Values	High Values
ZA	20	120	low Machiavellianism (social manipulation)	high Machiavellianism
ZB0	Nominal		best faculty type, etc.	
ZB1	3	10	anti-integration	pro-integration
ZB2	3	20	Whites: high inter-racial contact	low contact
ZB2	3	20	Negroes: low contact	high contact
ZB3A	-1	20	strong peer influence	adult influence
ZB3B	1	7	low teacher influence	high teacher influence
ZB3C	Nominal		birth order	
ZB4	7	24	pro first amendment	anti first amendment
ZB5	4	16	open to foreign ideas	closed to foreign ideas
ZB6	7	21	control over environment	no control
ZB7	5	15	self-confident	no self-confidence
ZB8	Nominal		self referents	
ZC	20	100	low dogmatism	high dogmatism
ZD	25	125	low anxiety	high anxiety
ZE1	12	36	low discrimination	high discrimination
ZE4	15	45	pro Bill of Rights	anti Bill or Rights

Administration. – The research design recommended by Professor Cline called for the student outcomes test to be given twice, once at the beginning of the school year and once near the end. It was believed that differences between the two scores, might be attributed at least to some degree to the influence of the teacher and that such differences might then be studied both in terms of the teacher's intents and classroom interaction practices. Since the pre test was not given until November and December, by which time schools had already been in session for several months, even the pre tests were to some degree post tests. And, since the post tests were given only a few months later, during March and April, it is questionable whether or not a proper pre-post test pattern ever was really established. Hence, interpretation of the results of this phase of the study is very difficult and becomes a matter of extreme caution.

The test was taken by all students in one class of each of the 26 teachers who participated. A total of approximately 550 students took the test. Because of the timing of pre and post tests described above, New Hampshire declined to participate in post testing. Therefore, comparisons here were limited to the 22 teachers from Maine, Massachusetts, Rhode Island, and Vermont.

Statistical Procedure. – Primarily, what was needed to evidence outcomes was a measure indicating the change that had taken place in a student's score, presumably as a result of his classroom experience. To obtain the needed measures of change with respect to the variables in Figure 9, certain well defined statistical steps were taken, as follows:

1. The Student Social Studies Inventory was scored, yielding a score for each student for each of the 17 variables given in Figure 9.
2. Classroom averages were computed for 15 of the 17 variables for each class that participated.
3. The procedure in 1 and 2 was repeated for the post tests.
4. Since a pre and post test score was obtained for each of the variables for each student, a measure of student change could be expressed as the difference, if any, between the two scores.
5. Average differences for each class were computed for each of the 15 variables. These average differ-

ences represent the magnitude of change within each class for each variable.

6. Average differences, if any, could then be studied in terms of H, U, and D intents, M and I orientations, and T variables in order to investigate certain hypothesized relationships.

HYPOTHESES

Two major groups of hypotheses were established to guide analysis. The first group expressed expected relationships between teacher intentions and student outcomes. The second group experienced expected relationships between the type of student-teacher interaction and student outcomes.

Relationships of Teaching Intentions to Student Outcome

Humanistic Teachers

Expected relative Z values:

Low Values		**High Values**
ZB5	ZC	ZB1
ZB2	ZD	ZB3B
ZE4	ZE1	ZB3B
ZB6	ZE4	
	ZB7	

The following reasons are given for the expections above. The strongly humanistic teacher might show some of the following characteristics: a high degree of tolerance for new ideas because of a fundamental respect for the beliefs of others, and because of a belief in the ultimate emergence of truth given a free and open market of ideas. The teacher high in humanistic traits would be capable of careful and critical examination of her own beliefs and able to be flexible in the face of new information while at the same time able to preserve the integrity of her own value system. Innovative behavior would be expected and reflected in a willingness to take risks for the sake of truth, an ability to tolerate failure in the search after knowledge, and an openness to other (strange or foreign) people and ideas, should characterize the strongly humanistic teacher. These traits if translated in the values of her students, should be reflected in the scores of the Coleman Scale and Remmers' Inventory. A significantly lower tendency toward authoritarianism and dogmatism, as well as a non-prejudicial attitude to minority groups, should be apparent in these teachers. Also, these strongly humanistic teachers should be able to reduce the tendency towards test anxiety to a greater extent than other kinds of teachers.

Social Utility Teachers

Expected relative Z values:

Low Values		**High Values**	
ZE4	ZB6	ZA	ZB4
ZB7		ZE1	
		ZE4	

The teacher who is strongly social utility intentioned might be expected to have some of the following characteristics: no apparent value commitment, so that knowledge is used primarily for pragmatic or egoistic purposes. Such an individual cannot distinguish between value systems except in terms of their consequences for the person holding the values. In this sense, the teacher can be liberal or conservative, progressive or reactionary. The content of the values is largely inconsequential. The results of behavior expressing the values are the criteria for judging the worth of beliefs or other systems of knowledge. The achievement of personal goals is essentially the definition of these criteria, and the ability to manage people and situations to achieve personal goals becomes the preferred skill of the high social utility teacher. Machiavellian Scale of Christie should best reflect the influence of such a teacher. The achievement motivation measures in the Coleman Scale should also reflect student rejection of the values of subordinating personal behaviors in the face of an ultimate human good.

Discipline Teachers

Expected relative Z values:

Low Values	**High Values**
ZB3A	ZC
ZB3B	ZBC
ZB4	ZB7
ZB5	ZD

A strongly discipline intentioned teacher might have some of the following characteristics: she might be less secure in ambiguous social situations, interested in facts for their own sake and consequently, apt to emphasize clarity at the expense of complexity. A discipline teacher would stress rote memorization and the acquisition of skills unique to his particular discipline instead of concept mastery and orientation to the universals of human history. Such a teacher might feel uncomfortable among less well known doctrines as well as among strange individuals. The well known facts and systems of organizing facts and people should be preferred by this kind of teacher rather than any form of innovation in human relations or the study of academic issues. Consequently, such a teacher would both teach and test according to a system of factual information which contains no intrinsic rationale beyond the superficial ones of temporal sequence, names, dates, and places. Overtones of authoritarianism might be present in such a teacher as well as rejection of novel ideas and extended relations with strange or foreign people. A dogmatic approach to problems might very well be present in such a teacher. Her testing program could easily be capricious or lacking in intrinsic rationale, and her attitudes towards the unique values of youth might tend to be negative.

If these attitudes are present in a strongly discipline intentioned teacher and thereby communicated to her students effectively, then the students might be expected to be somewhat nervous about being tested. For those students who are high test anxiety prone, such a teacher might maximize their potential anxiety. Therefore, the Sarason Test Anxiety measure is included in the student battery. Further, students might react negatively to the teachers' rejection of their peer group norms and tend, as measured by the Coleman Student Inventory, to place them lower on the scale of significance than their peers or parents. Finally, if the students do in fact identify to any degree with such a teacher there might be a significant incorporation of her dogmatic values, as measured by their scores on the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale.

TEACHING PRACTICES AND STUDENT OUTCOMES

The following hypotheses were made regarding the relationships between the classroom interaction pattern and expected student outcomes.

1. *Prolonged and frequent lecturing by teachers tends to result in dogmatism as a student outcome.* Result: classrooms with high T3 values are positively correlated with high ZC scores.
2. *A relatively high frequency of praise tends to result in students with higher self confidence.* Result: classrooms with high T4 values are positively correlated with low ZB7 scores.
3. *Teachers who spend more time giving directions produce students who evidence stronger teacher influence.* Result: classrooms with high T5 values are positively correlated with high B.
4. *Teachers who spend more time giving directions produce children with a higher respect for adult influence.* Result: classroom with high T-5 values are positively correlated with high ZB3A scores.
5. *Teachers who encourage students to develop their own ideas have as a result:*
    a. *Students less prone to social manipulation.* Result: high T7=low ZA.
    b. *Students who are more likely to be influenced by what their peers do.* Result: high T7=low ZB3A.
    c. *Students who are more open to foreign ideas.* Result: high T7=low ZB5.
    d. *Students who are more self confident.* Result: high T7=low ZB5.
    e. *Students who have a greater sense of control over their environments.* Result: high T7=low ZB6.
    f. *Students who are less dogmatic.* Result: high T7=low ZC.
    g. *Students who are more highly committed to freedom of expression.* Result: high T7=low ZE4.
6. *Teachers who evidence a concern for positive motivation and reward produce students with a greater degree of self confidence.* Result: classrooms with high T10 values are positively correlated with low ZB7 scores.
7. *Teachers who do not allow students an opportunity to respond to their questions tend to produce students with less self confidence.* Result: classrooms with high values for T20 are positively correlated with high ZB7 scores.
8. *Teachers who are more direct tend to produce students who are more influenced by adults than peers.* Results: classrooms with values for T21 greater than .5 are positively correlated with high ZB3A scores.

Initial Results of Analysis

Unfortunately, the hoped-for measures of change described above were not indicated by statistical analysis of the classroom averages for pre and post tests. After completing the first five of the six steps that were described, pre and post test scores were noted as being consistent with each other, and no significant patterns of change could be detected. Since there were no significant average differences to be studied, there was no possibility of completing step six.

Reasons for lack of evidence of change are open to speculation. It might be concluded that the intentions and orientations of social studies teachers have no bearing on such outcomes as were measured by the test given. On the other hand, it is entirely possible that the timing of pre and post tests was such that the influence of teachers was already established by the time of pre testing or that insufficient time elapsed between pre and post testing for influence to be indicated in the scores. It is also well to recall that comparisons were based on testing in only 22 classes and that the sample sizes may not have been large enough to detect small yet perhaps meaningful changes.

The time factor seems to be a reasonable subject for criticism when considering the consistency of pre and post test scores.

It was decided as a result of the above problem that further analysis of pre test scores should be undertaken- with the assumption that the impact of the teachers studied had already occurred by the time of the pre test.

Further Effort

Using pre test scores obtained in the classes of all 26 participating teachers, an effort was made to relate average scores for each Z variable to the intentions of the teachers. The data for this analysis are shown in Table 7. When interpreting the figures given in Table 7, it is necessary to refer to the meanings of the minimum and maximum values given in Figure 9.

For example, for ZA, Machiavellianism or social manipulation, the minimum and maximum scores were 20 and 120, respectively. Low scores were interpreted as a low degree of Machiavellianism, high scores as a high degree of Machiavellianism. The total average scores of 62.28 for the students of the 26 participating teachers is somewhat below the middle of the range of scores. The mid point between the possible low of 20 and the possible high of 120 is 70. Therefore, these students do not appear to be highly socially manipulative in their attitudes and, in fact, for all categories of intent fall consistently below the middle.

Many of the scores fall about the middle of the range. These include ZB1, anti or pro integration, where the group as a whole appear to be neither strong peer nor anti integration. Similarly with ZB3A where neither strong peer nor strong adult influence is indicated; ZB4 where the group seem to be neither strongly against nor strongly for the First Amendment.

The group scored above the middle on two categories. These were ZB2W where the white students participating indicated a high degree of interracial contact and ZD where the participating students indicated slightly more test anxiety than would have resulted from the mid score of 75. Note that ZB2N was not included because of scores too close to zero. Many of the respondents did not indicate their race, and there were too few identified as Negro to make these scores meaningful.

In addition to ZA there were a number of the total average scores which are somewhat below the middle of the range. The average for ZB3B, degree of teacher influence, falls well below the middle, 4, indicating that these students are less influenced by teachers than might be suspected. ZB5, attitude toward foreign ideas, suggests that

Table 7

Student Outcome Pre and Post Test Averages: Results by Educational Intention Categories

Variable		H(9)*		U(5)		D(5)		Total (Incl. M, I)	
Code,	Meaning, Min. & Max. scores	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post	Pre	Post
ZA	Machiavellianism 20-120 (Social Manipulation)	61.56	63.75	61.67	65.51	62.73	63.83	62.28	64.41
ZB1	Anti or pro 3-10 integration	6.22	5.97	5.96	5.80	5.76	6.11	5.98	5.96
ZB2W	Whites: interracial 3-20 contact	17.09	16.94	16.45	15.64	17.38	17.30	16.97	16.63
ZB3A	Peer vs. adult 1-20 influence	10.18	9.61	10.35	9.93	10.81	10.13	10.45	9.74
ZB3B	Teacher influence 1-7	2.27	2.15	2.26	2.13	2.09	2.36	2.21	2.21
ZB4	Pro or anti First 7-24 Amendments	15.18	15.18	15.88	15.50	16.27	15.45	15.78	15.38
ZB5	Open or Closed to 4-16 foreign ideas	8.55	8.58	8.68	9.60	9.26	8.80	8.83	8.66
ZB6	Control over 7-21 environment	11.92	12.01	12.41	11.87	12.50	12.18	12.28	12.52
ZB7	Degree of self 5-15 confidence	8.70	8.57	9.16	8.82	8.76	8.99	8.87	8.79
ZC	Degree of dogmatism 20-100	48.02	48.13	53.17	49.58	53.82	49.76	51.67	49.16
ZD	Degree of test anxiety 25-125	76.51	76.40	78.56	71.89	76.30	73.79	77.12	75.60
ZE1	Degree of 12-36 discrimination	14.46	14.72	15.80	14.71	16.63	15.93	15.63	15.12
ZE4	Anti or pro Bill 15-45 of Rights	22.45	22.64	23.90	22.32	24.75	24.10	23.70	23.02

*The number of teachers in each category is enclosed in parentheses.

the group are somewhat open minded toward foreign ideas. A low value for ZB6, control over the environment, indicates high control, whereas a high value indicates low control. The low average score here of 12.28 suggests that the students control the environment to a greater degree than might have been expected. They are also a fairly self-confident group, as indicated by the average of 8.87 for ZB7, which is well below the mid point of 10 for this variable. The middle of the range for ZC, degree of dogmatism, is 60. Low scores indicate low dogmatism. High scores indicate high dogmatism. Again, the average of 51.67 suggests that the group as a whole is not dogmatic. In keeping with the general picture of being open minded is the average for ZE1, 15.63. Well below the mid score of 24, it suggests that the group as a whole prefers little social discrimination. Finally, the score of 23.70 for ZE4, where low values are interpreted as pro Bill of Rights, is well below the middle score of 30, suggesting that, in general the participating students believed in concepts built into the Bill of Rights.

In general, the composite picture appears to portray a democratic, open minded group, self confident and in control of their environment, not dogmatic, with little desire to manipulate others, not greatly influenced by teachers, and definitely pro Bill of Rights.

With the above in mind, the numbers in the H, U, and D columns should be interpreted with considerable care. That is, looking at ZC, degree of dogmatism, for the D column, note the figure 53.82 for the average score of the students of teachers with disciplinary educational intents. This compares with 53.17 for the students of social utility teachers and with 48.02 for the students of the humanistic teachers. It would be erroneous to leap to the conclusion that the students of discipline teachers are more dogmatic than the students of the teachers with the other dominant intentions, and in fact, statistical analysis revealed that the amount of difference is not sufficient to reject a hypothesis. An average score of 53.82 is well above the middle score of 60. The minor differences among averages shown in the H, U, and D columns do not warrant any major conclusions. What, then, may be said about comparisons of these averages?

Comparisons, Intentions and Outcomes. – For five of the Z variables, certain differences among averages for classrooms of humanistic, social utility, and discipline teachers were found to be statistically significant at the level of significance, alpha = .2. This means that the chances are one in five that differences this large could have happened by chance. It must be noted that this is a liberal basis for establishing significance and, at four to one, at least three of the fifteen variables would have shown significant differences by chance alone. Consequently, no *single* interpretation of the averages shown for the Z variables is in order. Even where statistical significance is indicated, it would be unsafe to express strong conclusions.

However, the 15 comparisons as a whole illustrate a remarkable consistency of response in favor of the previously hypothesized effects of humanistic teachers. Although it is not safe to make *individual* comparisons, the evidence *as a whole* is consistently in one direction. Therefore, it must be assumed to have some merit. It would be unrealistic to attribute *all* these differences entirely to chance.

The evidence is somewhat like that cited in studies of the relationship of smoking to certain diseases. No one study proves beyond doubt that any specific relationship exists. But the weight of the evidence appears consistently in the same directions.

Consequently, the following fifteen statements are made about the H, U, and D comparisons *as a whole* and should not be quoted out of context for specific variables. Even where statistical significance is indicated, it would be unwise to conclude too much. However, looking at all differences, the following statements may be made.

1. (ZA) *The students of discipline teachers were more Machiavellian (social manipulative) than the students of either humanistic or social utility teachers.*
2. (ZB1) *The students of humanistic teachers were more pro integration than were the students of teachers with disciplinary intents. The students of utilitarian teachers were in between.*
3. (ZB2W) *White students of utilitarian teachers had more racial contact than the students of humanistic teachers. White students of humanistic teachers had more racial contact than those of discipline teachers.*
4. (AB3A) *The students of disciplinary teachers had stronger adult (versus peer) influence than those of utilitarian teachers. Those of utilitarian teachers had stronger adult influence than the students of humanistic teachers.*
5. (ZB3B) *The students of discipline teachers were less influenced by teachers than those of either utilitarian or humanistic teachers.*
6. (ZB4) *The students of humanistic teachers were significantly (alpha = .2) more pro First Amendment than those of discipline teachers. The students of social utility were in between.*
7. (ZB5) *The students of discipline teachers were significantly (alpha = .1) less open to foreign ideas than those of humanistic teachers. Again, the students of social utility teachers were between the others.*
8. (ZB6) *The students of humanistic teachers felt they enjoyed more control over their environments than those of utilitarian or discipline teachers.*
9. (ZB7) *Students in the classes of humanistic teachers were more self confident than those of utilitarian teachers. Those in the classes of discipline teachers were in between.*

10. (ZC) *The students of humanistic teachers were less dogmatic than those of utilitarian or discipline teachers.*

11. (ZD) *The students of utilitarian teachers indicated more test anxiety than those of discipline or humanistic teachers.*

12. (ZEI) *Students with humanistic teachers were signifcantly lower (alpha = .2) in social discrimination than those with discipline teachers. Students with utilitarian teachers were between the others.*

13. (ZE4) *Students with humanistic teachers were significantly more (alpha = .2) pro Bill of Rights than those with discipline teachers. Those with utilitarian teachers were between the other two.*

Once more it must be emphasized that no single one of the above statements can stand alone. None should be quoted out of the context of the pattern as a whole. But the entire pattern may be educationally significant and is worth noting.

It is possible, of course, that in some unexplainable manner, like-minded students and teachers tend to be assigned together. It does appear that if the study were repeated, a similar pattern of response might be expected. If the study could be repeated, following the original pre and post test design and possibly using a more sensitive measuring instrument, it is entirely possible that clear pre and post test differences for the students of H, U, and D teachers could be shown.

Additional Analysis

Size and location of school. – Comparisons were made for the Z variables as a relationship to the size and location of the school. These comparisons showed no significant differences beyond those that might have happened by chance. If the study were repeated, the same differences might or might not occur. Therefore, it seems unwise to speculate about what these particular and possible chance differences might mean. A study of students' attitudes repeated for a larger sample of urban versus rural or small versus large schools might provide meaningful information. However, the selection of teachers for this study did not provide a proper sample from which to generalize.

Relationships between T and Z variables. – Despite considerable effort to relate the T variables, specific social intention patterns, discussed in Chapter Four, with specific student outcomes, with the Z variables established for the results of the Student Social Studies Inventory, no relationships were found of statistical significance. This does not suggest that there are no differences in outcomes as a function of different teaching practices. It does say that so far as this study showed, no observable differences could be identified among the various verbal interaction patterns and the particular outcomes that were tested. The conclusion indicated, therefore, is that *the single factor identified in the study as most decisive in affecting student attitudes is not teaching practices, but the kind of intentions which characterize the teacher.*

Summary

The assessment was concluded by testing four selected outcomes in the classes of the 26 teachers who participated in the in-depth study. A student outcomes measure, constructed by Dr. Marvin Cline of Boston University, consisted of 19 sub-scales derived from certain published instruments in widespread use. These scales were designed to differentiate among the attitudes of students in a number of areas regarded as the most important predictors of future citizenship behavior. After field testing and refinement, the final test consisted of five scales that could be completed in 45 minutes.

Modifications in the original design of the study required that plans for administering a standardized achievement test be dropped. Also, delays and inconsistency in approval of pre and post test patterns resulted in post testing from three to four months later. The original recommendation was that pre testing be done at the very beginning of the school year and post testing toward the close of the year.

Probably as a consequence of the pre and post patterns that necessity demanded, no significant measures of change were indicated from pre to post test average scores.

A further effort was made to relate the results of the pre test scores to the Humanistic, Utilitarian and Discipline intentions of the participating teachers, and to the classroom interaction patterns of the teachers without regard to intentions. The general pre test averages suggest that the students as a whole were democratic, open minded, self confident, not dogmatic, and pro Bill of Rights. There was a slight but consistent pattern of response in favor of the hypotheses identifying the outcomes expected of successful teachers in each category of intention. No single conclusion may be drawn with safety, but the pattern as a whole was a consistent one. Additional efforts to relate the results of the student outcomes measure to size and location of schools and to the Interaction Analysis variables met with no success. **The evidence available seems to suggest that the factors most closely associated with student attitude outcomes are not teaching practices but the value orientation and intentions of the teacher.**

CHAPTER SIX

AN ASSESSMENT OF THE PROJECT: CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Values and Findings

It would be an injustice to the Social Studies Committee and to all those who worked so hard during this project to present a short list of findings as though a few research findings constituted the major values of the study. In fact, many of the benefits that resulted from this assessment may consist of the involvement of the many teachers who contributed to it and with the many possibilities for future investigation that may be suggested.

Involvement

First, of course, are the several thousand teachers from throughout New England who completed the Social Studies Inventory, either while it was being developed and field tested or during Phase I of the assessment. The fact that these numbers of social studies teachers completed the instrument and in the process gave some thought to their own intentions and orientations is believed to be of educational significance. To this group might be added some others who, for one reason or another, declined to complete the inventory. Those who did not participate indicated some concern with and for their aims.

At one time consideration was given to the possibility of turning the entire project over to a major research or testing organization. After exploring the advantages and disadvantages of such a move, the Committee decided that the involvement of large numbers of New England people was worth whatever loss of research efficiency might result by retaining local leadership.

Second, there are now a number of trained observers in New England who have had a first-hand experience with interaction analysis. As a group these people constitute a valuable resource for their departments and their schools. This training would not have been available except for the assessment. To the observers may be added the 26 teachers who participated in the in-depth study and who must have become aware of the technique.

Third, are the many professional staff members from the several state departments of education, university professors, high school teachers, administrators, and others, who served as committee or sub-committee members or as consultants to the project. Most of these people will continue to do their work in New England and, collectively, they represent a knowledgeable pool of experienced talent for future reference.

Fourth, the instruments produced for this project have proved to be useful and may be adapted for further investigation. The Social Studies Inventory is seen as a possible means of self analysis by which the members of individual departments may determine and discuss their own intentions and orientations. The Student Social Studies Inventory may find some use in situations where the staff is interested in the measurement of these particular outcomes.

Findings

The findings, themselves, have been stated in the summaries prepared for Chapters Two through Five and need not be repeated in detail here. Most significant from a broad point of view is that the results of the Social Studies Inventory suggest that dominant educational intentions and cultural orientations of large numbers of teachers may, in fact, be identified and analyzed. The largest number of the social studies teachers who completed the inventory proved to be humanistic in their intentions and innovative in their orientations or want to be so considered. These and other categories of intention and orientation studied in depth proved to be more strongly related to both classroom practices and student outcomes than any other factor studied. From an educational viewpoint this has important implications for curriculum development, teacher education, in-service programs, and other aspects of professional concern.

The largest number of social studies teachers were identified as most concerned with humanistic aims, but the evaluation tools available to these teachers and their local school administrators remain largely standardized achievement tests which measure outcomes consistent only with discipline aims. Few of these tests measure outcomes beyond names, date, and places. The project's review of the literature revealed very few evaluation devices appropriate to measure the social attitudes or practical social problem solving skills of students. There is little available to even reveal the ability of students to successfully diagnose real social problems. A valuable first step in the direction of developing appropriate devices for measuring outcomes consistent with humanistic and social utility aims might be an instrument to reveal the dimensions in terms of which students perceive social situations and the depth of perceptions within these dimensions.

Second, the preparation of teachers in social studies remains largely an academic (disciplinary) one. The context of this academic study is still in many instances predominantly history. More emphasis upon training in the social sciences, in human relations, and in group dynamics would appear to be appropriate. The present context of human social life is drastically altered from that which prevailed at any prior period.

Third, the various state standards for certification of teachers tend to reinforce the present emphasis upon purely academic disciplinary training. Perhaps standards of social performance ought to be included in the present certification regulations. Having proven one's insight into human behavior, or demonstrating a high level of T group sensitivity, would be as important for a humanistic or social utility teacher as the accumulation of academic credit.

Fourth, theoretical inquiry of the social studies profession has to date yielded little knowledge about human nature and the dynamics of social life which are consistent with its fulfillment. There exists a diversity of opinion about what behaviors of individuals and societies are good, desirable, or morally justifiable. There is no widely accepted knowledge of what is good for society which is analogous to the knowledge of the medical profession regarding physical hygiene. This places much of appropriate content of the humanistic teacher in the arena of public controversy. There is a clear and present need for a common body of knowledge, which might be termed humanistic knowledge, in terms of which social behavior may derive its meaning. There is a need, in other words, for a humanistic curriculum.

Other Findings

That most New England social studies teachers are definitely not transmissive in their cultural orientations is worth noting. It is interesting to see that the discipline oriented teachers tend to fall nearer the transmissive end of the cultural role continuum while the humanistic teachers tend to be consistently innovative in their orientation. It may be more educationally significant that, regardless of educational intent, most social studies teachers do not accept transmission of the culture as their major goal. It is very likely that successful social studies teachers are having an impact on the process of change which characterizes our culture today.

Efforts to relate the results of the Antecedent Teacher Questionnaire to the categories of intent and orientation and to student outcomes were frustrating. However, the teachers who participated in the in-depth study felt generally free to conduct their own classroom affairs, believed themselves to be well prepared for their work, and enjoyed excellent working relationships with colleagues, administrators, and pupils.

The results of interaction analysis visits suggested that the verbal patterns of these teachers appeared to contribute little to the course outcomes measured. In fact, the teachers own value commitments seemed to have more impact on the attitude of students than anything else studied.

The only positive correlations which were significant were those which related intentions to the classroom performance. Four of twelve hypotheses stated by the Committee concerning the verbal interaction patterns of humanistic, social utility and discipline teachers appeared to be supported by statistical analysis. Two were related to the evidence but in negative form. Six could neither be supported nor rejected by analysis of the scores. It is unfortunate that variability of response in some categories prevented a testing of all hypotheses. A comparison of the affect of variable teaching patterns as indicative of flexibility of teachers would be a fruitful area for further analysis. The small number of participants casts some doubt upon the meaning of the average figures used for making comparisons in the present study.

Pre-test scores of the Student Social Studies Inventory did suggest small but persistent differences in the attitudes of students assigned to the classes of humanistic teachers versus the attitudes of those assigned with discipline oriented teachers. It must be pointed out that these differences could have been influenced by other factors not studied. In any case, to the degree that the factors studied influence the attitudes of pupils, the dominant intents of these teachers appear to have been the immediate factor in these differences. Although post-test scores showed no significant changes the pre and post test pattern was such that little change could have been anticipated since the pre-tests were not given until several months into the school year. The magnitude of effect of teachers intention was obscured by a teacher impact already accomplished.

Suggestions for Further Study

Despite the serious effort that was put into the social studies assessment, it is apparent in retrospect that the study raised more questions than it answered. It was tempting for committee members to express substantial opinions regarding the interrelationships among intents and orientations, verbal patterns, and student outcomes because they are called upon to do so daily in their roles as state social studies consultants and supervisors. It was frustrating not to be able to fully validate or refute such opinions because the evidence was too slight to support strong statements. Throughout the body of this report a number of suggestions for further study were presented. These included the following:

1. A further effort should be made to validate the Social Studies Inventory. In the meantime, it appears to be a good tool for self-analysis by the social studies profession. Used locally, it could lead to a thoughtful study of the aims and emphases of the social studies program.

2. Although the study indicated that discipline oriented teachers tend to be moderative in their cultural orientation, there was a suggestion that the transmissive teachers identified tended to be strongly disciplinary in intention. Identification of a larger number of transmissive teachers might provide evidence to support or reject this hypothesis.

3. The number of utilitarian teachers included in the in-depth study was too small for many of the comparisons of intentions to student outcomes that might have been made. A further effort might be made to specifically investigate the perceptions of dominantly utilitarian teachers.

4. The large variability of the responses for some of the interaction analysis and variables suggests that future investigators using this technique should secure a far higher level of reliability among observers in order to permit utilization of categories in which small numbers of observations occur. It would also be helpful to secure a larger sample than was the case in the present study.

5. Certainly, any future effort to discover relationships between student outcomes and teacher intents or orientations should follow a pre and post test pattern such as that designed for but not followed in the present study, including both standardized achievement tests and the Student Social Studies Inventory.

Subjects for Further Study

In addition to suggestions contained in this report, the Committee formulated 13 questions for further study on the basis of their experience with the project. These are as follows:

1. What models, other than those investigated by this study, can be developed in an attempt to identify teacher intentions?

2. Are particular dominant educational intents or cultural orientations related to specific personality traits? A study based upon this question might provide a more adequate basis for selection of teaching candidates.

3. Future studies might compare eclectic (those with no preference) teachers with those who indicate a dominance.
   a. What are the goals of the eclectic teacher? Is such a teacher uncommitted or equally committed to a variety of intentions?
   b. Are eclectic teachers more concerned with student goals than with their own?
   c. How effective is the eclectic teacher?
   d. Are those who have a particular dominance more dogmatic in the classroom than those who are eclectic?

4. What relationships, if any, are there between the quality or type of a teacher's academic preparation and his educational or cultural concerns? Are factors of preparation associated with the eclectic viewpoint?

5. Do teachers of a particular dominance tend to select similar course content and text materials? Do they exhibit similar teaching practices?

6. To what degree do faculty and administrators agree about teaching intentions? Would in-depth study of the social environment of a specific school provide information that could help build staffs that are either more compatible or more diverse?

7. What kinds of teachers influence the lives of students most as evidenced by their eventual social, professional, and personal accomplishments? Could a longitudinal study be devised to help answer this question?

8. How do teachers with differing educational intentions differ in their classroom presentations? What other means are used by teachers to achieve their instructional goals? These questions imply a study of the total teaching strategies of teachers of various intentions.

9. Could the instruments used in this study be adapted to a deeper study of teacher values, student values, and the relationships between these value systems as they influence the education process?

10. Is an effective teacher one without dominant intentions? Can further study of educational intents find other ways for characterizing the effective teacher?

11. Would a study of student attitudes identify meaningful goals for social studies?

12. Could future investigation define dominance through more extensive empirical research, for example, by means of interviews with teachers and their peers?

13. Do the intentions of social studies teachers correlate with those of the communities in which they teach? A further study in specific school and communities might provide an answer to this question.

Recommendations

After reviewing the project in its entirety, the Committee considered recommendations to be included as a result of its work. After considerable discussion, general agreement was reached on only one recommentation.

Recommendation:

Teachers and administrators should recognize that in most schools the social studies teachers possess a diversity of intentions. Therefore, within the context of this diversity, teachers should articulate a rationale for social studies within their departments. The relatively large number of humanistic and innovative social studies teachers suggest a basis upon which a common rationale could be developed.

APPENDIX I

SOCIAL STUDIES
INVENTORY

INTRODUCTION

The following inventory of the New England Educational Assessment Project is being administered to all Social Studies teachers in the six New England states. Its primary purpose is to provide a stronger and clearer assessment of the current objectives of Social Studies programs. This project will promote greater recognition of the importance of Social Studies and of the contributions made by Social Studies teachers to education as a whole.

The following inventory presents a series of various imaginary situations. In each of these situations, you are given the opportunity to choose between three different ways that you could respond to them. For purposes of the inventory, no one of the three alternatives is considered the only "right" one; each is of equal significance.

You are requested, however, to respond to each alternative according to which choice seems *closest* to your own belief or which best represents the way you would act in the situation. Before making your choice, please read each situation carefully. If in some situations not a single one of three alternatives perfectly coincides with your own belief or way of acting, then select that alternative which most closely approaches your belief or action.

1. Miss Clark, who is studying to be an elementary teacher, is assigned by her professor to several teacher's guides used in social studies teaching at the third grade level. Her problem is to evaluate the different kinds of skills that each guide emphasizes, and to select the one she feels is most valuable. Which one would you select in her place?
   - a. First guide: Generating good social problems suitable to age level is most important.
   - b. Second guide: Above all, the child must develop ability to find accurate information and acquire as much social knowledge as possible.
   - c. Third guide: We should begin early to develop the child's basic attitude toward achievement of challenging human goals.

2. For his opinion survey, a sociologist interviews church-going farmers. One of his questions is: "Why do you go to church on Sunday?" Which of the following responses is closest to your own belief?
   - a. Farmer K: Because I feel I receive fresh inspiration for my work the following week.
   - b. Farmer Y: Because I become more aware both of my own real nature and that of other human beings.
   - c. Farmer Z: Because I seek to understand the thought and traditions of my religion.

3. A social studies class at Huntsville District School is undertaking a unit on consumer education. From their research, students have reported, among others, three varying viewpoints to the class. Which one of the following best represents your own belief?
   - a. The typical consumer is, after all, the ordinary human being trying to fulfill the best that he can for himself and his family, psychologically as well as physically.
   - b. The principal goal of consumer education is to teach every buyer how to spend each dollar in order to receive greatest benefit from his income.
   - c. If consumers are to perform intelligently, their main task is to become informed on the nature and operation of our productive economic system.

4. Journalists are asked to speak at a meeting in Metropolitan University about the American political structure and the role of students. According to three different journalists, students should:
   - a. Have a firm knowledge of the present political system if they are to become responsible citizens.
   - b. Share actively in constructing new political designs for the future.
   - c. Be made aware that gradual change is needed in our political order so that it may function more effectively.

5. A meeting of all social studies teachers in the secondary schools of Newborough was held last week. The primary task was to formulate "the total image of man" as a guide for the curriculum. Three statements written by teachers beforehand attracted greatest interest:
   - a. Teacher A: The ideal should center in human ability to direct change in behalf of a creative image of man and society.
   - b. Teacher B: In our rapidly changing era when important traditions are threatened, the ideal man must above all understand and preserve our way of life.
   - c. Teacher C: The image of the ideal man should grow gradually out of people's needs and experiences.

6. A speech contest is held at Central High School. The topic: "Why is education necessary for young people?" Different speakers argue that education:
   - a. Is necessary because young people should understand the accumulated knowledge of the ages and of our own civilization.
   - b. Helps to fulfill inherent potentialities in behalf of ultimate achievement in life.
   - c. Encourages young people to become more aware of themselves and of their relations with others.

7. Teachers in the Mountainside Regional School are discussing the possible uses of art in the social studies. They make several suggestions that art:
   - a. Should be used as a teaching aid to help the student gain information about the subject under study.

b. Helps to provide students with clearer pictures of the ways people live and adapt to different conditions.

c. Should be used to provide deeper appreciation of the personal and social purposes of man.

8. Last Sunday a discussion on the radio involved three influential citizens who were concerned about the role of the social studies in their town:

   a. Speaker 1: The main task is to provide knowledge of the history of Western civilization, plus some exposure to such social sciences as sociology.

   b. Speaker 2: The central theme at any level should be the goals of humanity.

   c. Speaker 3: Usefulness to everyday life and practice is primary.

9. Several groups of junior high-school students are gathering information about the giant redwood trees of California. In their research they learn about the proposal for a Redwood National Park. But different groups take alternative stands on this proposal:

   a. Since the redwoods are beautiful and irreplaceable, nearly all that are left should be set aside in large national parks.

   b. Redwood trees must be protected and preserved to some extent, but private companies must also be allowed to own a fair amount.

   c. Redwoods are beautiful, to be sure, but lumber companies still have a right to cut trees on their own property, in accordance with our economic traditions.

10. A boy and a girl of about 17 years of age walk into the North Senior High School cafeteria holding hands. The boy is a Negro and the girl is white. Later in the day, Miss Franklin's students discuss what she, a social studies teacher, would think about this situation. Would she say?

   a. They have a right to choose their own partners, but it would be best if they kept their friendship outside of school.

   b. We should feel proud of this boy and girl for breaking through a social barrier.

   c. Young people of different races should not get involved because such a relationship only causes difficulties for them and their families.

11. High school juniors are discussing the alleged superiority of Americans:

   a. Bill: They are superior because recent history has demonstrated that America leads the world.

   b. Judy: We need to find out in what respects Americans may be superior or inferior.

   c. Tom: There is only one superior people—the human race as a whole.

12. Officers of the Roosevelt Junior High PTA have different views on sex education:

   a. Speaker 1: It isn't the function of the school to teach a matter that is the responsibility of the home.

   b. Speaker 2: Moral and social as well as biological and physiological aspects of sexual behavior should be discussed fully in the classroom.

   c. Speaker 3: The physiology of sex should receive careful attention in the curriculum.

13. National news commentators are arguing on TV about the Negro riots that took place in various cities:

   a. Mr. Parsons: Laws should be tightened and police protection strengthened to insure against further riots.

   b. Mr. Conrad: OK, but even more worth considering are remedial measures like greater job opportunities.

   c. Mr. Frankel: You miss the main point. Negro demands for much more complete economic and civil rights must be met.

14. One of the units in Blackburn High School deals with communism. Social Studies teachers are discussing the best ways to teach it:

   a. Miss Mennelli maintains that students should study a basic source such as *The Communist Manifesto;* they should be helped to read it carefully and critically.

   b. Mr. Walters holds that it is wiser to use a textbook that emphasizes communism's opposition to democratic principles and institutions.

   c. Mrs. Brogan favors studying *The Communist Manifesto,* but would also encourage free class discussion in order to seek agreement as to whether students may or may not approve of communism.

15. Congressmen were chatting in the halls of the national Capitol about the proposed Fund for International Development:

    a. Congressman K: I support this proposal because it can advance the purpose of a united mankind.

    b. Congressman Y: Why not be practical and simply admit that the proposal strengthens American relations abroad?

    c. Congressman Z: I intend to vote against greater funds because we need to reduce federal spending for such foreign ventures.

16. A local television station carries a college panel discussion by officers of student organizations concerning student demonstrations on the campus:

    a. Senior class president: Demonstrations should be excluded by college authorities.

    b. Secretary of debating society: They are one vigorous way by which students can express themselves.

    c. Chairman of student government: They should be allowed as long as the rules of college authorities are respected.

17. At a PTA meeting, Mr. Montgomery, chairman of the social studies department of the Westport School, was asked to speak. The main point he made was this:

    > Some parents contend that the social studies curriculum here is out of date. They criticize it for not coping with controversial issues such as racial and ideological conflicts. I must answer that, although we recognize that these issues are important at the adult level, we should respect those influential organizations in our community which help to support our schools and which maintain that it is not our proper place to deal with such issues.

    After the meeting parents reacted as follows:

    a. First parent: Mr. Montgomery makes a lot of sense.

    b. Second parent: I agree with those who want controversial issues discussed.

    c. Third parent: Not only should controversial issues be discussed, but students should meet them face-to-face through direct community involvement.

18. Miss Rafferty plans to teach a junior high school social studies unit on the population problems of India. She is undecided whether the emphasis should lie in:

    a. Knowledge of population structure according to such data as class and rate of growth.

    b. Religious, moral, and other traditional values of marriage and the family.

    c. Ways that population growth can be controlled, such as family planning.

19. During a seminar at an educational conference, teachers were told about the different uses of political cartoons as a teaching device. Mr. Beals, Mr. Lang, and Mr. Carson, respectively, stressed that cartoons:

    a. Are sometimes insightful in revealing the deeper meaning of historical events.

    b. Can help motivate students to become more critical and more useful citizens.

    c. Can help bring to life the character of important political leaders.

20. A debate on whether Communist China should or should not become a member of the United Nations sparked considerable discussion among members of the class:

    a. Pam: The United Nations must not admit Communist China.

    b. Betsy: Communist China should become a member now.

    c. Dan: The U.N. should reconsider admission of Communist China in due time.

21. "Of various uses of a movie projector in your classroom, do you consider some uses more important than others?" This question was considered by social studies teachers at Kennedy School. Here are some of the responses dropped in the suggestion box:

    a. To improve communication between people through visual involvement.

    b. To help students obtain a deeper understanding of the subject under study.

    c. To increase practical facility of learning through visual aids.

22. Students were asked to make suggestions for a study of their city. These were their ideas:

    a. John: Let's send for booklets, read as much as we can, look at films, and prepare a report.
    b. Ted: Let's make a trip to city hall, tour some neighborhoods, and make a report with photographs of our experience.
    c. Martha: Let's meet with city officials, civil rights leaders, and citizens of different social classes, and then develop a new city plan.

23. Teachers in the Eastbrook School were comparing notes on their units on the Soviet Union. They found some variations in emphasis:

    a. Mrs. Thomas: I like to compare Soviet and American rates of technological progress.
    b. Miss Lane: I emphasize the cultural values of the Russian people so that students can get the "feel" of the country.
    c. Mr. Bachs: I stress historical periods, ideologies, and geographical regions.

24. The principal of Smithville High is seeking an experienced social studies teacher. He has discussed the candidate's qualifications with three associates, each of whom stressed a different primary qualification:

    a. Mr. Jones: The candidate's record of courses and grades in history and other related subjects.
    b. Mr. Stone: Recommendations of former employers as to teaching skills.
    c. Mr. Ladd: Personality and interest in students.

25. A local association of churches sponsored a public debate on the war in Vietnam. Three public figures participated.

    a. Speaker 1: The Vietnam war must be won to prevent the expansion of communism.
    b. Speaker 2: Our government should begin to reduce gradually our involvement in the war.
    c. Speaker 3: U.S. troops should be withdrawn without further delay.

26. Mr. Smith is planning an experimental high school unit on the role of religion in the modern world. He asks his fellow teachers which of three approaches seems most desirable:

    a. Approach #1: Religious leaders of various faiths offer a series of lectures followed by discussion periods.
    b. Approach #2: Students learn about major religions comparatively through visits to churches, synagogues, and other first-hand experiences.
    c. Approach #3: Students and teachers of different views on religion share their convictions, seeking critically individual and group appraisals.

27. At lunch time a group of teachers is discussing methods of pupil evaluation. Different views are expressed:

    a. Teacher X: I prefer to use objective tests because they are the most effective method of evaluation.
    b. Teacher Y: My students and I work out the standards of evaluation which together we put into practice.
    c. Teacher Z: I emphasize a combination of objective tests and student self-evaluation.

28. Teachers in Memorial Junior High are encouraged to make frequent use of maps in their classes. They prefer doing so for different reasons:

    a. Miss Cals believes that students should have adequate geographical knowledge of continents and countries of the world.
    b. Mrs. Spence believes that students should make frequent use of maps in order to become skillful.
    c. Mr. Drake believes that maps aid students in developing perspectives on cultures of the world and their diverse peoples.

29. A student doing a survey asked teachers to respond to this question: "Should a private corporation be expected to provide training and jobs for unskilled and unemployed people?" The responses fell into three patterns:

    a. The corporation has a public obligation to hire and train economically disadvantaged people.
    b. The corporation should consider such people according to exactly the same qualifications that apply to any other applicant.
    c. The corporation should be urged to hire and train such people, but need feel no obligation to do so.

30. Mr. Jacobson previewed a group of short films dealing with the history of American Indians. He found differences in their focus:

a. Movie A stressed the white man's exploitation of the Indian.

b. Movie B stressed the Indian's interference with the white man's colonization.

c. Movie C stressed how the white man sometimes took advantage of Indians while Indians sometimes attacked white man's settlements.

31. Several community organizations learned that a teacher in Donaldson School was using a textbook to which they objected and which they wanted withdrawn. Donaldson teachers took different stands on the dispute:

a. Mrs. Singer: These organizations represent many fine parents; I think the text should be replaced by a more agreeable one.

b. Miss Flynn: Teachers, as professionals, should have the right to decide which textbooks to use.

c. Mrs. Rank: Let's listen to what the organizations have to say and then we can discuss both our own position and theirs.

32. While investigating problems of slum clearance and urban renewal, Mr. Larsen's students got into a lively discussion about the significance of their recent visit to a nearby Negro community. He listened to many comments, including the following:

a. Nancy: Our visit provided a closer sympathy with the discrimination experienced by Negroes.

b. Bill: We were stimulated to think more seriously about widespread actions urgently required to improve the conditions of minority groups.

c. Joe: A great deal of reliable, first-hand social and economic facts became more necessary than ever before.

33. Curriculum guides in several nearby school systems include a unit on Eskimos, but some of the basic purposes of this study varied from one guide to another.

a. Guide X: To study about Eskimos as well as other primitive cultures.

b. Guide Y: To reproduce and practice with the kinds of tools that Eskimos employ in a difficult environment.

c. Guide Z: To have children learn about the ways Eskimo children are fundamentally like themselves in spite of different customs.

34. "When a student asks you a difficult question, how do you answer if you're not sure?" Miss Jones, a beginning teacher, asked the advice of Mr. Giles, an experienced teacher. He replied that he has found at least three different ways to handle such a situation:

a. Give the best answer you can because it is more important that the students respect you than to be sure of an answer.

b. Admit that you don't know the answer at all, but find the question interesting enough to offer to search for it.

c. Although you aren't sure of the answer, make the best attempt you can with the hope that you'll be helpful.

35. Harold Rogers, a teacher in the Park School, has been thinking about the increasing involvement of big companies in the field of education. He sees many possibilities in this trend, including the following:

a. Large business organizations have the means to develop new educational materials, so they should do so frequently and freely.

b. Teachers should become much more independent in order to reduce the influence of big companies.

c. Large companies have found the educational field a ripe one for expansion, but teachers should be careful about accepting their products.

36. It was decided that basic democratic concepts like *liberty* be included in the social studies curriculum this year at the Monroe School. At the department meeting, teachers aired their opinions:

a. Miss Crane: I think the intellectual history and development of these concepts is one of the most important aspects to stress.

b. Mr. Chinn: These concepts, although abstract, contribute one important value in solving the problems of everyday life.

c. Miss Wilson: Concepts like this hold very important meanings for the rights of minority groups today.

APPENDIX II

SOCIAL STUDIES
STUDENT INVENTORY

INTRODUCTION

The following inventory is being administered to a large group of students in the six New England states. Its primary purpose is to estimate the range of social insights indicative of student outcomes of concern to educators, students, and the general public. It is hoped that knowledge of the range of student perceptions in these areas will promote a greater understanding of the educational processes currently functioning in the New England region.

The statements you are about to read all represent beliefs or feelings that are held by many people and rejected by others. Clearly, there are no known right or wrong answers to any of them. In each instance you will be asked to record the extent to which the statement represents your belief or feeling. In some cases it may be impossible to record your *exact* judgement on a specific matter. In such an instance, please record an answer that comes *closet* to your belief or feeling. Please be sure to answer *all* questions.

Note Carefully: Your own responses to this inventory will be kept strictly confidential. All answer sheets will be filed as part of the total project. They will be grouped by category in order to permit generalizations about students in the New England region, but in no case will any individual response sheet be identified for any purpose other than grouping. You can be certain that *no information about your responses to this survey will be revealed to any member of your school system or any other agency.*

Thank you for your cooperation.

DIRECTIONS FOR SCALE A

Listed below are a number of statements. Each represents a commonly held judgement. There are no right or wrong answers. You will probably disagree with some items and agree with others. We are interested in the extent to which you agree or disagree with such matters of judgement.

Read each statement carefully. Then indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree by checking the appropriate column on the response sheet. The column headings are:

agree strongly
agree somewhat
agree slightly
disagree slightly
disagree somewhat
disagree strongly

First impressions are usually best in such matters. Read each statement, decide if you agree or disagree and the strength of your judgement. *Give your judgement on every statement.*

If you find that the categories to be used in answering do not adequately indicate your own judgemen use the one which is closest to the way you feel.

1. Never tell anyone the real reason you did something unless it is useful to do so.
2 The best way to handle people is to tell them what they want to hear.
3. One should take action only when sure it is morally right.
4. Most people are basically good and kind.
5. It is safest to assume that all people have a vicious streak and it will come out when they are given a chance.
6. Honesty is the best policy in all cases.
7. There is no excuse for lying to someone else.
8. Generally speaking, men won't work hard unless they're forced to do so.
9. All in all, it is better to be humble and honest than to be important and dishonest.
10. When you ask someone to do something for you, it is best to give the real reasons for wanting it rather than giving reasons which carry more weight.
11. Most people who get ahead in the world lead clean, moral lives.
12. Anyone who completely trusts anyone else is asking fo trouble.
13. The biggest difference between most criminals and oth people is that the criminals are stupid enough to get caught.
14. Most men are brave.
15. It is wise to flatter important people.
16. It is possible to be good in all respects.
17. Barnum was wrong when he said that there's a sucker born every minute.
18. It is hard to get ahead without cutting corners here and there.
19. People suffering from incurable diseases should have th choice of being put painlessly to death.
20. Most men forget more easily the death of their father than the loss of their property.

DIRECTIONS FOR SCALE B

Listed below are a number of statements. Again, there are no right or wrong answers. This time, however, we would like you to pick one of the alternative responses, and check the column under the letter that corresponds to your judgement on the response sheet.

1. What type of faculty do you believe is best for a public school with an all non-white or predominantly non-white student body?

A. An all-white faculty
B. Predominantly white faculty
C. About equal number of white and non-white faculty
D. Predominantly non-white faculty
E. All non-white faculty
F. It doesn't matter
G. Selected without regard to race
H. Some degree of integration, but ratio doesn't matter

2. What type of faculty do you believe is best for a public school with a racially mixed student body?

A. An all-white faculty
B. Predominantly white faculty
C. About equal number of white and non-white faculty
D. Predominantly non-white faculty
E. All non-white faculty
F. It doesn't matter
G. Selected without regard to race
H. Some degree of integration, but ratio doesn't matter

3. What type of faculty do you believe is best for a public school with an all-white or predominantly white student body?

A. An all-white faculty
B. Predominantly white faculty
C. About equal number of white and non-white faculty
D. Predominantly non-white faculty
E. All non-white faculty
F. It doesn't matter
G. Selected without regard to race
H. Some degree of integration, but ratio doesn't matter

4. Let's say that you had always wanted to belong to a particular club in school, and then finally you were asked to join. But then you found out that your parents didn't approve of the group. Do you think you would . . .

A. Definitely join anyway
B. Probably join
C. Probably not join
D. Definitely not join

5. What if your parents approved, but the teacher you like most disapproved of the group. Would you . . .

A. Definitely join anyway
B. Probably join
C. Probably not join
D. Definitely not join

6. But what if your parents and teachers approved of the group, but by joining the club you would break with your closest friend, who wasn't asked to join. Would you . . .

A. Definitely join anyway
B. Probably join
C. Probably not join
D. Definitely not join

7. Which one of these things would be hardest for you to take—your parent's disapproval, your teacher's disapproval, or breaking with your friend?

A. Parent's disapproval
B. Teacher's disapproval
C. Breaking with friend

8. Are you . . .

A. An only child
B. The oldest child in your family
C. The youngest child in your family
D. Between the oldest and the youngest

9. How many of your teachers in the first eight grades of school were white?

A. None
B. A few
C. Less than half
D. About half
E. More than half
F. Almost all
G. All

10. What was the first grade you attended with students from another race in your classes?

A. 1st, 2nd, or 3rd
B. 4th, 5th, or 6th
C. 7th, 8th, or 9th
D. 10th, 11th, or 12th
E. College
F. Have never attended classes with students from another race

11. If you could have anyone you wanted for your close friends, how many of them would be white?

A. None
B. Less than half
C. About half
D. More than half
E. All
F. It doesn't matter

12. In your first eight grades of school, about how many of the students in your classes were white?

A. None
B. A few
C. Less than half
D. About half
E. More than half
F. Almost all
G. All

13. When a new clothing style comes out, how soon do you change to the new style?

A. I'm usually one of the first in my group to change.
B. I change about the same time that most other people in my group change.
C. I usually don't change until most of my friends have changed.
D. I don't follow the change at all.
E. Clothing styles don't matter to me.

14. Suppose you had money to buy a new sport jacket for a special dance. How would you decide what style or fashion to look for?

A. I'd ask a friend my own age for advice.
B. I'd ask a friend a little older than I am for advice.
C. I'd ask one of the members of my family for advice.
D. I'd find out what is in style from a magazine.
E. I wouldn't consult anyone or anything.

15. Newspapers and magazines should be allowed to print anything they want except military secrets.

A. Agree
B. Disagree
C. Uncertain

16. Do you think that loyalty oaths should be required of all government employees, or only of those in positions involving security or secrecy?

A. Required of all
B. Required only of security employees
C. Not required of any
D. Uncertain

17. Should or should not teachers in our schools and colleges be required to sign a special non-communist oath?

A. Should
B. Should not
C. Uncertain

18. Police and other groups have sometimes banned or censored certain books and movies in their cities. Should they or should they not have the power to do this?

A. Should
B. Should not
C. Uncertain

19. It has been suggested that persons who refuse to serve in the Army or "fight for their country" should be deprived of their right to vote. Do you agree or disagree with this idea?

A. Agree
B. Disagree
C. Uncertain

20. Should or should not a foreigner visiting this country be permitted to criticize our government?

A. Should
B. Should not
C. Uncertain

21. Some cities have passed laws against printing or selling any communist literature. Do you think such laws should or should not be passed?

A. Should
B. Should not
C. Uncertain

22. In peacetime, do you think that members of the communist party in this country should be allowed to speak on the radio?

A. Should
B. Should not
C. Uncertain

23. We should encourage more new ideas rather than always keeping to the old, tried and established ways of doing things.

A. Agree
B. Undecided; probably agree
C. Undecided; probably disagree
D. Disagree

24. Most foreigners have annoying habits.

A. Agree
B. Undecided; probably agree
C. Undecided; probably disagree
D. Disagree

25. We should not limit and control immigration of foreigners into this country as much as we do now.

A. Agree
B. Undecided; probably agree
C. Undecided; probably disagree
D. Disagree

26. There is too much concern about danger to democracy from foreign ideas within this country.

A. Agree
B. Undecided; probably agree
C. Undecided; probably disagree
D. Disagree

27. People who accept their condition in life are happier than those who try to change things.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

28. Good luck is more important than hard work for success.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

29. People like me don't have a very good chance to be successful in life.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

30. Every time I try to get ahead, something or somebody stops me.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

31. If a person is not successful in life, it is his own fault.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

32. Even with a good education, I will have a hard time getting the right kind of job.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

33. I would make any sacrifice to get ahead in the world.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

34. If I could change, I would be someone different from myself.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

35. I sometimes feel that I just can't learn.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

36. I would do better in school work if teachers didn't go so fast.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

37. The tougher the job, the harder I work.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

38. I am able to do many things well.

A. Agree
B. Not sure
C. Disagree

39. Which of the following policies on bussing of elementary school children represents the best educational practice in your estimation?

A. Children should not be bussed to a school other than their neighborhood school.
B. Children should be bussed to another school only to relieve overcrowding.
C. Non-white children should be bussed to another school in order to achieve racial balance.
D. Both white and non-white children should be bussed into schools with a predominantly different racial composition to achieve racial balance.

40. Which of the following policies on neighborhood elementary schools represents the best educational practice in your estimation?

A. Neighborhood elementary schools should be maintained regardless of any racial imbalance produced.
B. Neighborhood elementary schools should be maintained but where possible a device such as reducing the grade span of schools, 'pairing' schools, or another practice should be used to promote racial balance.
C. The idea of neighborhood elementary schools can be abandoned without significant loss.

41. Do you believe there is a sound basis in educational policy for giving compensatory programs to culturally disadvantaged students at extra cost per pupil?

A. Yes
B. No
C. Undecided

42. A situation like this might face anyone sooner or later. Suppose your parents planned a special trip to New York to celebrate their wedding anniversary, and they wanted to take the whole family along. But then it happens that this year your basketball team gets to the state tournament. The state finals are the very weekend that your family is going to New York. Your parents can't change their plans and they leave it up to you: to go with them or to go to the tournament. Which do you think you would do?

A. Go with parents
B. Go to tournament

43. Suppose you had a chance to go out with either a cheerleader, or a girl who is the best student in class, or the best looking girl in class. Which one would you rather go out with? Or if you are a girl, would you rather go out with a star athlete, the best student, or the best looking boy?

A. Cheerleader or star athlete
B. Best student
C. Best looking

44. A lot of times people make plans and then find that the plans cut into something else. Suppose your family had planned a trip to the West for a vacation in the summer. If you go along with them, it means you can't go camping with your friends, as you've been planning to do. What do you think you would do?

A. Go West with parents
B. Go camping with friends

45. If you could be remembered here at school for one of the three things below, which one would you want it to be?

A. Brilliant student
B. Athletic star
C. Most popular

DIRECTIONS FOR SCALE C

Listed below are a number of statements. Again, there are no right or wrong answers. We would like you to stat to what degree you *agree* with each statement. Please indicate the degree of your agreement by checking the appropriate columns on the response sheet. The column headings are:

agree very slightly
agree slightly
agree moderately
agree strongly
agree very strongly

1. The United States and Russia have just about nothing in common.
2. The highest form of government is a democracy and the highest form of democracy is a government run by those who are most intelligent.
3. Even though freedom of speech for all groups is a worthwhile goal, it is unfortunately necessary to restrict the freedom of certain political groups.
4. Man on his own is a helpless and miserable creature.
5. Most people just don't give a damn for others.
6. I'd like it if I could find someone who would tell me how to solve my personal problems.
7. There is so much to be done and so little time to do it.
8. It is better to be a dead hero than to be a live coward.
9. Of all the different philosophies which exist in this world there is probably only one which is correct.
10. A person who gets enthusiastic about too many causes is likely to be a pretty 'wishy-washy' sort of person.
11. To compromise with our political opponents is dangerous because it usually leads to betrayal of our own side.
12. When it comes to differences of opinion in religion, we must be careful not to compromise with those who believe differently from the way we do.
13. The worst crime for a person to commit is to attack publicly the people who believe in the same thing he does.
14. There are two kinds of people in this world: those who are for the truth and those who are against the truth.
15. My blood boils whenever a person stubbornly refuses to admit he's wrong.
16. In this complicated world of ours the only way we can know what's going on is to rely on leaders or experts who can be trusted.
17. In the long run the best way to live is to pick friends and associates whose tastes and beliefs are the same as one's own.
18. Most people just don't know what's good for them.
19. It is only natural for a person to be rather fearful of the future.
20. While I don't like to admit this even to myself, my secret ambition is to become a great man, like Einstein or Beethoven or Shakespeare

DIRECTIONS FOR SCALE D

On the response sheet are five columns representing a range of feelings. At the opposite ends are opposite feelings. Please show how you feel about each statement by placing a check in the appropriate column.

Many people have been interested in how students *feel*—about tests and about taking tests. We would like *you* to tell us how you feel about the different kinds of tests. We are interested in finding out how students differ in their feelings about the different tests.

There are *no* right or wrong answers to this questionnaire. We are only interested in how you *feel* about tests. The value of this questionnaire depends upon how straight and frank you are about telling your *real* feelings. Remember that your answers will not be shown to anyone in the schools. Everything you say here will be kept strictly confidential.

There are three kinds of tests mentioned in this questionnaire:

1. *Scholastic aptitude tests.* These are the kind of tests that all of you have probably taken at some time in Junior High or High School. These are usually the tests for which you *cannot prepare* and for which you cannot study.
2. *Teacher-made tests*. These are the tests given to you during the term which your teacher announces ahead of time. These tests cover the material you have had in class, and you can study for them.
3. *Tests.* When the statement says 'tests,' it means any and all kinds of tests.

Read every question carefully. Answer every question. Be sure to tell how you *really* feel. Answer the questions quickly. Do not spend too much time on any one question.

1. Before taking a teacher-made test I tend to worry.
2. I expect myself to do better with difficult problems given as homework than with the same problems given on a teacher test.
3. *After* I have completed a teacher-made test, I worry about how well I have done.
4. Even though I prepare for a course examination I expect to do poorly on it.
5. *While* taking a teacher-made test, I wonder about how well I am doing.
6. I feel that a teacher-made test result (score) shows what I really know in the subject.
7. I try to improve my grades from one test to the next.
8. *While* taking a teacher-made test, I find myself thinking about how well I am doing on it.
9. I feel that my classroom participation shows what I know about a subject better than my examination scores.
10. *While* taking a scholastic aptitude test, I do not sweat more than I do at other times in school.
11. *Before* taking a teacher-made test, I feel fairly confident that I will do well.
12. I usually expect to do poorly on a teacher-made test.
13. I find myself thinking about other things while taking a test.
14. *After* I have completed a scholastic aptitude test, I worry about how well I have done.
15. *After* taking a teacher-made test, I feel fairly confident that I have done well.
16. While I am taking a test, I find that I cannot seem to sit still.
17. When the teacher announces that a test is going to be given, I become afraid that I am going to fail—that I will do poorly.
18. While taking a hard test, I find that I tend to forget facts that I thought I knew very well.
19. I am trying to aim for a perfect score on every test that I take.
20. *Before* taking a test, I worry about the possibility of failing it.
21. *While* taking a scholastic aptitude test, I wonder about how well I am doing.
22. I enjoy taking a test.
23. When under the pressure of testing situation, I work better than I do when on my own time.
24. *Before* taking a scholastic aptitude test, I feel fairly confident that I will do well.
25. *While* taking a teacher-made test, I am aware that my heart is beating faster.
26. *While* taking a scholastic aptitude test, I worry about the possibility of failing it.

DIRECTIONS FOR SCALE E

Here again are a list of statements. Read each statement carefully. Then indicate on the response sheet whether you agree, disagree, or are uncertain by checking the appropriate column. Don't forget there are no right or wrong answers. We are simply interested in your judgement.

1. People of all races and nationalities should attend school together everywhere in this country.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

2. The government should have control of all the railroads and airlines.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

3. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues that children should learn.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

4. Newspapers and magazines should be allowed to print anything they want except military secrets.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

5. Religious belief and worship should not be restricted by laws.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

6. People of different races should not dance together.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

7. The government should abolish all rights of inheritance to insure equality of opportunity.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

8. Whatever serves the interests of government best is usually right.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

9. The government should prohibit some people from making public speeches.
   - A. Agree
   - B. Disagree
   - C. Uncertain

10. In some cases the police should be allowed to search a person in his home even though they do not have a warrant.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain

11. Swimming pools should admit people of all races and nationalities to swim in the same pool.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain

12. Most basic industries, the mining and manufacturing, should be owned by our government.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain

13. Most children these days need more discipline.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain

14. Some criminals are so bad that they shouldn't be allowed to have a lawyer.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain

15. Some religious groups should not be allowed the same freedom as others.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain

16. There should be laws against marriage between people of different races.
    - A. Agree
    - B. Disagree
    - C. Uncertain